

# Contemporary Psychology

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# Contemporary Psychology

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## As the Artist Perceives . . .

E. H. Gombrich

*Art and Illusion: A Study in the Psychology of Pictorial Representation.*

(Bollingen Series XXXV-5.) New York: Pantheon Books, for the Bollingen Foundation, 1960. Pp. xxxii + 466. \$10.00.

Reviewed by HAROLD G. McCURDY

*Dr. McCurdy is Professor of Psychology at the University of North Carolina. CP turns to him when confronted with the problem of the artistic personality or of the experience of art, poetry, or literature. He is not unversed in psychoanalytic theory and next winter Harcourt, Brace should be publishing a book on personality by him.*

ONE of the tasks undertaken by artists (though not the only one) is to convey by means of paint on canvas a truthful impression of the face or scene before their eyes. Thus the English painter Constable, whose opulent and placid landscape *Wivenhoe Park, Essex*, of 1816, furnishes the main pictorial point for Gombrich's rambling lectures in this opulent and troubled volume, stated that his own aim was to endeavor to give "one brief moment caught from fleeting time a lasting and sober existence," and he set up his easel resolutely in front of Nature to do it. Long before Louis Agassiz said to biologists, "Study Nature not Books," Constable was saying: "Painting is a science, and should be pursued as an inquiry into the laws of nature. Why, then, may not landscape painting be considered as a branch of natural phi-

losophy, of which pictures are but the experiments?" Doubtless, a sharp graduate student today would immediately punch a hole in Constable's research program by asking, "What is the hypothesis you are testing?" or even "What is your experimental design?" but it is clear enough in general what Constable wished to do.

Gombrich, a distinguished art historian, has no trouble at all in showing that Constable had his hypotheses in fact, derived from the study of art manuals and the predecessors he admired. Like all painters he came to his work as the heir of a tradition. From this tradition he had stocked his mind with the concepts and techniques which were to control his choice of subject matter and his way of handling it. To emphasize his point and to bring his discussion within the boundaries of psychology, Gombrich uses the term *schema* for this equipment. What an artist like Constable does, according to this analysis, is to express the schema in his work but also to correct it by comparing it with his direct observations of Nature. A tension is thus set up in the artist between making and matching. He daubs or scribbles or repeats the formulas of his teachers or

fishes up archetypes from the Unconscious—in short, he makes his mark in the world; but also he notices a certain resemblance between these products of his own activity and the things in Nature which interest him, such as bison or women or trees, and he attempts to improve the match.

In this view of the matter, then, Constable's experiments were aimed at a fuller and more intimate knowledge of reality, and carried on the main line of effort in Western art from the ancient Greeks until the quite recent desertion of that program by the nonrepresentational painters of our own day. Far from scorning illusionist effects, ancient critics admired the skill of an artist who could cheat birds into pecking at his painted grapes. The great Renaissance artists and connoisseurs likewise were in love with reality. Such a magician as Leonardo was constantly preoccupied with questions of perspective, anatomy, lights and shadows, and facial expression, striving always toward such a matching of Nature as would make the figure step from the canvas into his arms, breathing endearments like Pygmalion's statue. It is clear that Gombrich regards the present rebellious break with that tradition as lamentable, but perhaps as due to developments within the tradition itself—such as the extremes of Impressionism.

So much for history.

THERE remains the eternal problem of communication. Whether it is a question of Constable's trying to tell us about his landscape (in paint, of course) or Klee's teasing us with the strange contents of his mind, the art work

eventually is seen by somebody besides the artist himself, and he has to struggle to adjust his schema to it. For the beholder has his schemata, too, which the art work challenges; just as Nature challenged Constable, and something else for which we have no convenient name presumably challenged Klee. Here Gombrich makes a really illuminating contribution, which might have been sharpened up for the psychologist if he had only employed the psychophysical concept of adaptation level. He points out that the evaluation of a single piece of work owes a great deal to our knowledge of the artist's total output and the source of his schemata. For example, we cannot appreciate the agitated gaiety of Mondrian's *Broadway Boogie-Woogie* except by comparison with the sobriety of his usual designs: it lies far out toward the extreme of his artistic range. Again, whether we react to Manet's *Déjeuner sur l'herbe* of 1863 as a naughty piece of naturalism or otherwise depends, at least in some measure, on our recognition of its place in the history of art. Its shocking quality is considerably modified when there is set beside it the 1515 engraving of Raimondi's *Judgment of Paris* from which Manet drew the principal features of his composition with great literalness. What this confrontation does for us is to help us see Manet's picture as Manet saw it—as a fresh experiment with an old, sound, much praised design.

Gombrich tells us toward the close of his book that the main thing he has learned since writing *The Story of Art* (which has been translated into ten languages and gone through nine editions in English since its publication in 1950) is that the human mind is not simply a repository of static schemata but is active, and that its activity is a constant striving after meaning. If this striving is frustrated, the world of art and the rest of the world collapse into total ambiguity. It is this central *orexis* which he attempts to handle with some of the common phrases of psychology. At moments, as he repeats over and over "schema with correction," "learning," "trial and error," "texture gradient," and so on, one experiences the illusion of attending a psychology lecture; but then one notices that these



E. H. GOMBRICH

terms are a little artificial for him, not quite assimilated. On the other hand, art has certainly not been assimilated into psychology, in spite of the logic of the quotation from Friedländer which stands at the head of Gombrich's introductory chapter: "Art being a thing of the mind, it follows that any scientific study of art will be psychology."

A CLUE to Gombrich's awkwardness with psychological terminology and psychology's conditioned avoidance reactions to art may be found in what Gombrich confesses at the end of his work.

Just as the historian can never fully explain the individual work of art with all the decisions involved in making it, so the psychologist can never fully interpret its meaning to the questioning art lover. This admission may come as a surprise to any reader who has felt troubled by so much rationalism in the face of art. Yet it is rational, I think, to maintain that the meaning of human expression will always elude scientific explanation. Have we not seen that our responses in life to the interacting stimuli of light or shape no less than our responses to facial expressions or speech sounds are always immediate, global, unanalyzed, and in that sense intuitive? Where we understand we understand directly, as we understand the meaning of a

musical phrase or the inflection of a voice. The mystic and irrationalist errs only in thinking that such intuition must always be superior to reason, infallible. There are misunderstandings of expression as there are other false responses. The rational approach can help to eliminate such mistakes by showing what a work of art cannot have meant within the framework of its style and situation. Having thus narrowed down the area of misunderstandings it must retire; for the particular in all its richness is bound to slip through the clumsy net of general concepts which we make by asking our twenty questions. Created as a tool to help us find our way through the world of things, our language is notoriously poor when we try to analyze and categorize the inner world (338f.).

I stumble over that last phrase. It seems to me that what Gombrich means is that the work of art refers beyond itself and beyond what it nominally represents; but that this Beyond is "the inner world," in the sense of a private region of the mind, I doubt. This doubt is reinforced by his words a little further on, where he says:

Indeed, the true miracle of the language of art is not that it enables the artist to create the illusion of reality. It is that under the hands of a great master the image becomes translucent.

I think that Gombrich is saying that the beholder of a masterpiece does not stop at the painting in its frame or at the scene which it may illusionistically represent, but passes through them both into a region of power which is peace, even when manifested in a storm over Toledo, or of peace which is power, even if it shines on the silken water and the silken flanks of the cows of Wivenhoe Park. Insofar as art does this, it is bound to make both historian and psychologist (or that partial fusion of both which Gombrich is) hesitate, draw back, and perhaps grow silent.



*The modern poet, who lives in an age of psychological discovery and of an increased awareness of the subtler currents in himself, has a harder task to tell the whole truth than his ancestors had in simpler and less self-conscious times. He is particularly at a disadvantage because the modern means which scientists have invented for psychology, the language which they use and their experimental approach to the subject, are unfitted for poetry.*

—C. M. BOWRA



# How Good Were the GIs— and How Poor?

Eli Ginzberg and Associates

*The Ineffective Soldier: Lessons for Management and the Nation.* 3 vols.  
New York: Columbia University Press, 1959. \$6.00 each volume.

Vol. I: *The Lost Divisions*, with JAMES K. ANDERSON, SOL W. GINSBURG, and JOHN L. HERMA. Pp. xxii + 225.

Vol. II: *Breakdown and Recovery*, with JOHN B. MINER, JAMES K. ANDERSON, SOL W. GINSBURG, and JOHN L. HERMA. Pp. xx + 284.

Vol. III: *Patterns of Performance*, with JAMES K. ANDERSON, SOL W. GINSBURG, and JOHN L. HERMA, assisted by DOUGLAS W. BRAY, WILLIAM A. JORDAN, and FRANCIS J. RYAN. Pp. xxii + 240.

Reviewed by WALTER L. WILKINS

*Dr. Wilkins is Scientific Director of the U. S. Navy Medical Neuropsychiatric Research Unit in San Diego. Until recently he was Professor of Psychology in St. Louis University, and before that during World War II a psychologist in the U. S. Navy. The research with which he is at present identified has to do with the behaviors found in adjustment to military life and in special stresses, and the measurement of symptoms of hospitalized servicemen in the neuropsychiatric services.*

THESE three volumes are the product of a large-scale study of the worthwhileness of the U. S. Army's personnel procedures during World War II as determined by the use of manpower, especially manpower that might be considered marginal in its effectiveness. To assure that pro-military or anti-military bias would be minimal, the project staff included both civilian and military workers. To offset possible bias of one discipline or another, the study used the professional services of persons trained in psychiatry, social work, psychology, and economics. The director of the project, the principal author of these volumes, Eli Ginzberg, is Professor of Economics at Columbia University and the author of many previous books on

manpower utilization. He was an adviser to both line and medical administration of the Army during World War II. Before this study began he was probably one of the best informed economists in respect of the use of psychological and psychiatric techniques in industrial selection. Now he must be the best.

World War II saw the largest use of these techniques in history, and it provides, through the records kept, the best-documented study in history of the dislocation of human beings from family, job, and home. Ginzberg has exploited the existence of punched-card records to conduct a survey of how well the Army's personnel system worked. Misuse of manpower is to him a serious as well as a foolish thing, and, while he realizes that no industrial organization ever approaches ideal efficiency in the use of manpower, he feels that the size of the Army was little excuse for the inefficiency shown. His criticism goes beyond the Army and includes any groups who, perhaps with noble intentions, helped the Army (and so, by implication, the Navy) to waste manpower resources. These groups include the policy makers who translated the Army's needs into the draft and discharge policies which resulted in well-

meaning but short-sighted measures and who ignored the fact that manpower was not unlimited, and the psychiatrists who were naive enough to think they could identify those recruits who were going to make little or no contribution to the purposes of an Army and whose retention in the service would probably be a waste of taxpayers' money.

VOLUME I, *The Lost Divisions*, is devoted to figuring out how many more men could have been at the battlefield if so many had not been discharged "prematurely." There had to be a simple criterion of effective performance as a soldier to apply to these masses of data. The criterion was ability to avoid getting discharged before the war was over or, in civilian terms, to be self-supporting. Thus effective performance became anything which started late but lasted, like just a few months of service in 1945, whereas ineffective performance would include a considerable period of outstanding service which did not last to the end of the war. See Matthew 20, 1-15: those who bore the heat and burden of the day and those who worked only the last hour, each received a penny. Still it does seem like oversimplification.

Major General Snyder, President Eisenhower's personal physician, tells us in the foreword what the President wanted to find out when he helped to initiate this study. These were the four questions and, in brief, the answers are provided by the analyses in these volumes.

(1) Do ineffective soldiers come from rural or urban backgrounds? Rural.

(2) Do they have adequate schooling? No.

(3) Do they have histories of physical and emotional stability? Yes and No. While the background histories that the psychiatrists and personnel interviewers had did not enable them to predict well who would be effective, it is also clear that, with the right sorts of information about the previous adjustments a man makes, including his family and job adjustments, it should be quite possible to make a good prediction of his future effective performance.

(4) Were they able to readjust as civilians? You bet!

Anyway, Ginzberg is sure that too many men were discharged before the

war was over, and he rather blames the psychiatrists and their colleagues, the clinical psychologists. Screeners cannot predict 'emotional stability' because it is not identifiable, but they might be able to identify 'performance potential' if it were defined adequately. Some of the patent difficulty psychiatric screeners must have had could be properly allocated to their training and experience. For one thing, screeners had difficulty in identifying the defined performance potential in men from subcultures different from their own.

Ineffectiveness of performance is, however, the result of more than emotional conflicts. It depends on work and stress, and reactions to stress are determined by not only the resources and limitations of the individual, but also by operational decisions.

It seems to be assumed by Ginzberg that psychiatrists and clinical psychologists not only tend to ignore job adjustment more than they should, but also that as disciplines psychiatry and psychology are just too young to have much to contribute to manpower management. Personnel psychology and economics might have had something to contribute, but the Army's short-sightedness made this contribution ineffective.

**V**OLUME II, *Background and Recovery*, is a collection of 79 dramatically told case histories, chosen to illustrate how factors in the life of the soldier bear on whether he breaks down and, if he does, whether he recovers. It has a good list of the resources within the individual that help mental health: stamina, good intelligence, a desire to get ahead, generous and understanding parents, a self-reliant and capable wife, and good stabilizing work. Beyond these—for military life—the support or lack of support a man received from his peer group and from the military organization itself, and the severity and duration of the stress he was exposed to, are all of importance.

Because the stories are brief, they are oversimplified. Some of the points illustrated through the thumb-nail case histories will seem self-evident to the psychologists who were there. But the lessons learned in one military generation, like those in one academic generation,

often have later to be learned again through hard experience, and spelling out the obvious may then help. This volume should be full of lessons for currently active military psychologists and psychiatrists and those working in the Veterans Administration.

Volume III, *Patterns of Performance*, reports a study of a group of 534 enlisted men separated from the service before they might have been. They are described under four situations: those who had less than one year's service and never left the states, those who served more than a year, but still never left the USA, those who got overseas but saw no combat, and those who had active combat duty. This sample was chosen from 1,764,000 enlisted accessions to the Army in the fall of 1942, the period of the Army's most intensive growth, when presumably good men were being drafted (we were still a good ways from the "bottom of the barrel"). The Adjutant General's Office had saved a 5% sample of punched-card records on all men discharged from 1939 to 1946 and the Surgeon General's Office had cards on all men separated for medical reasons, so a sample of men could be traced from one source through another. The number identified and separated as ineffective turned out to be 3,857, and 534 of these were chosen for exhaustive study. For these men 41 biographical items were available, and histories could be found so that each man could be followed through discharge and later post-military adjustment. Generalizations drawn from this sample, together with the supporting data which the project analyzed and reported in some previously published volumes, are important when one considered the numbers of men discharged. It is reported that from 1942 to 1945 the number of men discharged for psychoneurosis was 256,000, for ineptitude 122,000, for psychosis 55,000, and for undesirable habits or traits 37,000. On the basis of the 5%-sample it was concluded that 72,700 of the men taken into the Army in the last four months of 1942 were prematurely separated, and most of the tables in Volume III give *N*s based on this projected number.

From reading the tables and discussions one comes away completely con-

vinced that staying power in the Army is very largely affected by education. Evidence here is given that Negroes do less well than whites, that rural background is less desirable than urban, and that it is better to come from married than single life. But when educational differences are allowed for in all these comparisons, the differences just about disappear.

Another interesting finding: most people have a resiliency beyond what even experts in the behavioral sciences expected. A good many men who got into combat proved more effective than most psychiatrists would have predicted. A minority got into combat, of course, and the Army had a second screening device, not psychiatric nor formally organized, yet fairly effective. It undertook to protect good units from receiving too many inadequate men. Nevertheless, the Army was determined to deprive no one of the opportunity of overseas service, and the chances of staying in the USA were negligible unless one were, like General Marshall, considered absolutely indispensable for one's job or unless one were considered really unfit for overseas duty.

The ways in which men rose to the challenge of military duty are suggested in Volume II, but from Volume III we may draw the conclusions that we should look to the underlying strengths and weaknesses of men, more than to the objective stresses and strains to which they might be exposed if we wish to predict life-performance patterns. Men are a good deal more stable than some short-sample, interview techniques ordinarily reveal. In the eyes of Ginzberg and his colleagues a man's performance is determined by his biological and psychological constitution, his early life experiences, the stability of his emotions, his motivations for the job, and the severity and duration of the stress he must undergo—but even if all these determiners be positive, the leadership to which he is exposed and the personnel policies which affect him—these in any industrial situation are crucial.

Policy has real effects, on productivity as well as on morale and efficiency, and nowhere is it more effective than in the Army. Ginzberg suggests that the

U. S. Army in World War II arrived at a situation which may not be unlike that found in other industrial and technical organizations; the best talent was assigned to operations, the next best to supply, and the leftover talent to personnel administration. This inequity results in catch-as-catch-can improvisation with overcompensatory policies following inadequate policies. There is one case history of a division which must have caused at least one major general to weep as his command was buffeted by a succession of well-meant personnel decisions that had a most grievous effect on his training program. The whole story adds up convincingly to the fact that people must come first—plans are carried out by people. And people cannot be stockpiled.

How inept can a man be and still carry on, even in the military? This question has been argued by every psychologist of military age, but there are some data here to suggest that a man does not have to be free of all disabilities to function. The situations in common life, as in Army life, in which only an All-American boy can qualify, must be comparatively few. Anne Roe, from studying a population very different from the Army's recruits, has drawn attention to the fact that a man may look quite shaky to a clinical psychologist or psychiatrist and still carry on and possibly do good work in one way or another. The question of the cost of carrying on, to the man and to the organization, is, of course, not explicitly raised here.

It is most reassuring to find that the majority of those who had difficulty in adjusting to military life were able to make an adequate adjustment as civilians again. The effective role of the Veterans Administration in assisting this adjustment is indicated here, and one can infer that the nation was saved a much greater burden of human suffering (and of taxpaying) because of the efficiency of this organization.

**P**SYCHIATRIC screening for industrial purposes gets, as it were, a black eye here, but I had the feeling that psychiatrists were being chided for trying to do something that they never really tried to do. Most psychiatrists in 1942

—I speak feelingly on this point for I was at that time a psychologist in a psychiatric unit attached to a U. S. Marine Corps recruit training activity—were not specifically trained to estimate the probable effectiveness of a recruit, who probably came from a subculture different from their own anyway. They were not prepared to make the judgment on any basis, least of all on a three-minute interview. It is suggested by the authors that a better use of psychiatrists and of clinical psychologists would have been to let them aim their therapeutic efforts at the retention of demonstrably skilled and courageous men and at keeping them at a high level of motivation. This new role for psychiatrists is one they are not specifically trained for, either, but I think they might be.

The assumption is commonly made that a man, rejected once, never had another chance to serve. I have no figures to dispute this belief but there were certainly some men who said they had had more than one chance. And even in World War I, as James Thurber noted in his autobiography, a man with an easily noticed disability could be

called up again and again with uproariously funny regularity.

The hasty reader might infer from some passages in these volumes that psychiatric screening is worth little. The evidence presented is, however, by no means such as would tell administrators to abandon all screening of applicants for jobs in their industries. The objectives of screening can stand a close look, and, indeed, the efficiency of modes of screening must be subjected to periodic scrutiny by the personnel psychologists. Everybody knows that the only final way to see if a man can do a job is to try him out; nevertheless the prospective employer should interview him and, when possible, use psychological tests to help predict his job adjustment. The focused psychiatric interview can have satisfactory validity if it sets out to accomplish something within its possibilities.

It was an unfortunate fact in the Army that many men worked at a level below their capabilities, but Ginzberg points out that the "vast majority of the population are working below, some considerably below, the level at which they are capable of performing." Per-



Among the assessors: from left to right, JOHN L. HERMA, MAJOR GENERAL HOWARD SNYDER (Advisor), ELI GINZBERG, DOUGLAS W. BRAY, and JAMES K. ANDERSON

haps a case might be made out for the possibility that the Army does a better job of allocating its people to jobs commensurate with their abilities than does civilian life. Harrell's data on the Army Air Corps given in his paper at the 1946 Meeting of the American Psychological Association certainly suggested this.

**T**HE principal lesson for personnel administration is that made to policy makers. Most of the young men who failed to adjust to the Army during World War II had suffered serious deprivations in childhood and adolescence. They did not come to the Army equipped with the intellectual and emotional strengths, the past history of adjustment, or the other adequate supports shown to be relevant to adjustment. Intellectual deficiency reinforced their emotional lability. Emotional immaturity hindered the learning process and the Army demanded rapid learning. The psychotic just could not adjust and everyone realized that fact. That the mentally retarded and the emotionally immature could become such poor risks could be most clearly seen in a situation in which faulty organizational policies maximized their potential for becoming maladjusted. What policy makes best use of available manpower is perhaps, like so many other things, easier described by hindsight than by foresight. These volumes preach to the president as well as to the personnel manager, to the psychometrician as well as to the clinician.

The first lesson is for education: skimping on basic education, on technical education, and on military education had a payoff which might have been expected, but only hindsight showed the price paid. The second lesson is that planning is worth while. That war cannot be planned for is no excuse for not planning the best use of available resources. The third lesson is that screening is expensive: just where is the point of diminishing returns? Selective criteria must depend on the men actually available. Everybody in every organization cries for the best men, and each unit has reasons why it should not have to get along with what it has. So personnel policy must in the fairest pos-

sible way determine through realistic appraisal what the organization's needs are. Yet even that is not enough. The effective performance of an organization requires the best use of every individual with all his assets and shortcomings, but the motivation and morale which result from effective leadership—these are needed too.

## Existential Child Therapy

Clark E. Moustakas

*Psychotherapy with Children: The Living Relationship.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xx + 324. \$5.00.

*Reviewed by* LUCY RAU

*who is now a member of the Department of Psychology at Stanford University after having been Chief Clinical Psychologist in the Child Guidance Service of the Children's Hospital of East Bay, California. She has her doctorate from the University of California at Berkeley.*

**P**SYCHOTHERAPY may be defined as a relationship in which one member is experiencing difficulties in living and the other undertakes with him the amelioration of those difficulties. This book provides an illuminating exposition of one approach to this relationship in psychotherapeutic work with children, an approach which might best be characterized as existential. Dr. Moustakas, who practices, studies and teaches child therapy at the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit, is clearly a descendant of the Rankian tradition in child-guidance work. He combines with this clinical tradition a theory of personality which places central emphasis on the self, and a leaning towards existentialist ethic. The result is a theory and technique of child therapy which has a strong family resemblance to the Rogerian. The basic condition of this form of child therapy is described as a warm, essentially human relationship in

which the therapist empathically understands and accepts the child's feelings, with the goal that the child fully experience himself.

The exposition of this method is accomplished through detailed verbatim excerpts from cases, with explanatory comments by the author. Examples are given of therapy with "normal," disturbed, handicapped, and "creative" children. This rich and varied store of primary material will undoubtedly prove the most valuable aspect of the book for many readers. It will be a particularly useful primer for beginning child therapists, whose most pressing need is often simply for information as to what to expect in play sessions.

The sections on counseling parents and collaboration with the school are explicit and practical, while at the same time adhering to the same theoretical position adopted in the work with children. This leads to a flexible attitude toward the inclusion of parents in the therapeutic process which contrasts with much of the current emphasis on the treatment of families as units.

Others besides professional child therapists, including teachers and parents, will find this book informative and appealing. With that wider audience in mind the reviewer finds herself with some questions about the author's suggestion that parents, on occasion, undertake therapy with their own children. It would be unfortunate if the author's intention were misinterpreted as support for a species of 'wild analysis,' rather than as a natural extension of parental understanding and acceptance of children's feelings and reactions.

**M**OST child therapists will probably find the chapter on the 'creative' child the most provocative. The cases presented here range from one or two who would certainly be diagnosed as autistic, to a highly gifted boy with the capacity to verbalize a view of the world that seems close to transcendental. It is the author's view that pathology in such children results from attempts to socialize them in the mold of conventional cultural expectations, and that therapy with them must involve learning to perceive and to conceptualize in their manner. This attitude leads to the



"creative relationship" in which "therapist and child are involved in a process of self-fulfillment, a growth experience which has a wholly positive orientation and direction. . . . Together, therapist and child create unique themes of life." In the "reactive relationship," on the other hand, the therapist "selects and responds to some particular aspect of the child's behavior which he believes is therapeutically significant," with the goal of relieving tension and bringing about behavioral change. In the creative relationship "behavior is only an external fragment of the total experience," in other words an epiphenomenon. Aside from the difficulties of validating such a proposition, the distinction the author is making seems to lack coherence with the rest of the book. His description of the creative relationship seems a logical extension of his therapeutic principles to the attempt to establish communication and empathy when one must first learn a language that is deviant or fragmentary. It is a characteristic pitfall of the phenomenological approach to assume that when the situation is different, different principles must necessarily apply.

For those whose interest in child therapy involves the development of more adequate theory and research, this book will stimulate more questions than it resolves. It is curious that Moustakas, who has done considerable work on the description and measurement of interactions in child therapy, seems so unconcerned about behavioral change. Such unconcern makes one suspect that his criticisms of psychoanalytic treatment of children are more philosophic than pragmatic. His views are disarmingly presented in the guise of a critique of the case of "little Hans," in which he quite obviously agrees with Hans' reported view that Freud's interpretations were silly. One is left, however, to consider the complicated question of the relationships between the constructs about personality which the therapist uses, the extent and nature of his interpretive activity, and the resultant change in the child, both experiential and behavioral. The tentative conclusion from Moustakas' book seems to be that a certain kind of therapist activity, mainly reflection of feeling in the set-

ting of broad but firm limits and a warm and accepting relationship, can be very effective. What conditions determine the relative effectiveness of this approach, as compared with the psychoanalytic or some other system of child therapy, remains an empirical and open question, one which seems to require an answer if psychotherapy with children is to become more than an art.

## The British Aspiration

K. Lovell

*Educational Psychology and Children.* (2nd ed.) New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. 272. \$6.00.

Reviewed by GORDON N. CANTOR

*who is Associate Professor of Psychology at George Peabody College in Nashville. He is from the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station as of 1954, and he is now teaching psychology to prospective teachers, training doctoral candidates for research in mental retardation, and investigating learning and motivation in defectives and normal children of preschool age. For CP he has reviewed three books on mental deficiency (CP, July 1957, 2, 180-182).*

IN a foreword to this book, P. E. Vernon describes American texts in educational psychology as "unnecessarily prolix" and, in many respects, inappropriate for the British approach to education. Dr. Lovell, Lecturer in the University of Leeds Institute of Education, has written explicitly for English teachers-in-training and, in the process, has covered a large amount of ground with a decided lack of prolixity.

His goal is to "provide a comprehensive and up-to-date textbook" for students preparing for a variety of certificates and degrees in education. Wide ranging through the American and British literature, both time-wise and topic-wise, is at once the book's chief merit and deficiency. An author cannot pos-

sibly do justice in such a small volume to so much theory and empirical material. Yet Lovell comes impressively close to doing so.

He excels in his discussion of abilities and their measurement, largely because he is willing to invest a substantial number of pages in the topic. His chapters on motivation and learning are unusually brief, and the result is superficiality, not comprehensiveness.

On the other hand, he is admirably sensitive to matters of controversy. In almost all of his "suggestions" to teachers (how to motivate children, how to improve children's powers of observation, how memory can be made as efficient as possible), he is cautious and undogmatic. The interacting nature of heredity and environment and the problem of inferring causation from correlation are themes nicely interwoven throughout the text.

What this reviewer would consider lapses (e.g., flogging the dead horse of the "mere 'stamping in'" of S-R bonds, a surprisingly uncritical reaction to the notorious Bernardine Schmidt study, and a frank dualism in a chapter on "body and mind") are few in number.

A crucial question concerns the audience, if any, the book will find in America. It's much too solemn for the typical American undergraduate (not a single picture!), and its scholarship is too substantial (discussions of intelligence, learning, motivation, and child development, interlarded with references to McDougall, Freud, Pavlov, Spearman, Thurstone, the ethologists, Hebb, Hull, etc.). The American graduate student in psychology, of course, can get all this material in considerably more detail in numerous other places. The graduate-level education major, however, could profit greatly from the book if he is interested in a broad but not especially deep overview of educational psychology. The emphasis on British educational processes does not seem to matter much. For instance, the problems of pupil selection and individual differences, nicely illustrated in the discussions of competition for admission into the British Grammar Schools, certainly transcend that local educational situation.

In all, the book is an impressive

achievement. It is just too bad that the specter of prolixity stood in the way of the author's attaining the comprehensiveness to which he aspired. A deviation now and then from his determination to instruct rather than entertain would have been welcome.

Lovell's scholarly style and his inclusion of often quite difficult material (including a brief but fairly potent dose of statistics) indicate his high regard for the prospective British teacher. There lies some food for the thinking of the American educator!

## Suicide Intended or Not

E. Stengel and Nancy G. Cook, with the assistance of I. S. Kreeger

*Attempted Suicide: Its Social Significance and Effects.* (Maudsley Monographs, No. 4.) London: Chapman & Hall, for the Institute of Psychiatry, 1958. Pp. 136. 25s.

Reviewed by JAMES M. A. WEISS

Dr. Weiss is Clinical Associate Professor of Psychiatry at the University of Missouri's School of Medicine, Assistant Professor of Psychiatry at Washington University's School of Medicine, and Director of Training at the Malcolm Bliss Mental Health Center in St. Louis. His interest in disordered human behavior was first stimulated by Charles Bird at the University of Minnesota, where he and Paul Meehl both took their baccalaureates summa cum laude in 1941. His training in psychiatry was at Yale where F. Redlich got him entangled with social psychiatry. Nowadays he works on community mental health with special emphasis on suicide, homicide, and the aging process.

DR. ERWIN STENGEL is the eminent Professor of Psychiatry in the University of Sheffield (England). Formerly he was Honorary Consultant Physician to England's two great mental hospitals, the Bethlem Royal and the Maudsley. Alone and with his collaborators, Nancy G. Cook (a psychiatric social worker) and I. S. Kreeger (a psychiatrist), Stengel has written a number of very thoughtful and stimulating papers on suicide and attempted suicide. I was therefore rather surprised to find that this book, which should have been a definitive effort, left me vaguely dissatisfied.

Of course, suicide is a complex socio-psychiatric phenomenon about which

much confusion exists. Its scientific study is difficult, for the obvious reason that persons who have committed successful suicide are no longer available for psychological or psychiatric study. Thus much prior research into suicide and attempted suicide has been either actuarial and often quite superficial, or, alternatively, oriented to depth psychology and often quite speculative. Stengel has previously steered between this Scylla and that Charybdis, staying mostly in the safe and frequently productive waters of clinical impressionism—but this time he gets caught in both traps.

In this book attempted suicide is studied as a meaningful and momentous event in the person's life with a special consideration of its effects on the social environment. Stengel discards completely the older idea that attempted suicide is nothing but an abortive form of successful suicide. He and his co-workers have carefully studied five groups of persons who made suicidal attempts, and the fate of the members of two of these groups was followed up over considerable periods of time.

THE chief propositions of the book appear to be (1) that the suicidal attempt is a phenomenon different from the successful suicide, one that should be studied as a behavior pattern of its own, (2) that an appeal to the human environment is a primary function of

the suicidal attempt, and (3) that the suicidal attempt has a variety of social effects, especially on interpersonal relations. But the book comes in the form of a club sandwich: there is an anterior section consisting of a rather brief but meaty review of prior research into suicide and attempted suicide, and there is a posterior section consisting of rich and tasty comments about the problem; in between, unfortunately, there is a thick portion of almost indigestible statistical data and case histories, a welter of data that seems not to be effectively treated, nor well integrated, nor really correlated with any of the singular or general propositions made in the last section of the book.

For example, Stengel never really comes to grips with the unhappy fact that it is impossible to generalize with validity from a nomothetic study of suicidal attempts, because (as both Stengel himself and others have previously noted) reports of the rates of suicidal attempts represent only a fraction of the real incidence of all suicidal attempts among the general population. To be included in any statistical study, a suicidal attempt must be of such nature that the person making the attempt is brought to the attention of a physician, a policeman, or some similar authority; and that authority must take action to report the attempt as such. For a variety of reasons, most suicidal attempts are not so registered, and there is some evidence that those attempts that are reported involve a specially selected group, and that the selective factor varies in different places and at different times. Such samples are then always unrepresentative, and statistical analysis performed on them is likely to be of but doubtful value.

THERE are other faults. One is that the authors cite psychoanalytic theories relating to suicide and attempted suicide rather uncritically, ignoring the fact that although such psychodynamic theories of suicide may be valid, they contain inherent methodological errors. They are based on data derived either from persons who, during or after a period of psychoanalytic scrutiny, successfully committed suicide, or from persons who unsuccessfully attempted suicide. Gen-

eralizing from the few cases of the former type may not be correct, for it is certainly possible that new dynamic forces—occurring between the last interview and the time of the actual suicide, and therefore not available for analysis—played a part. The relevance of pre-mortem analytic data to an understanding of the actual crisis which resulted in any particular successful suicide is left open to question. Therefore, most investigators, trying to learn more about the dynamics of suicide, have turned to the person who attempts suicide unsuccessfully.

However, as the authors themselves have noted, attempted suicide apparently does not represent a simple dynamic or even diagnostic pattern; there is considerable evidence that the suicidal attempt is usually overdetermined behavior involving both the person himself and the social environment in which he functions. Our difficulties in understanding the suicidal act are emphasized in the amazing fact that psychiatrists have apparently not reduced the incidence of suicide among their own patients (i.e., among the mental hospital population) in the past forty years, despite the many advances in methods of treatment of emotionally disordered persons.

WHEN the authors state that "it is erroneous to divide suicidal acts in the successful and the unsuccessful attempts, death being the only criterion of success," and that "survival appears at least as natural and legitimate an outcome as death," they apparently mean that in many cases of attempted suicide the attempter does not sincerely intend to end life but may rather hope to preserve life and certain of its social aspects. I do not think, however, that Stengel could or would deny that evidence from this reviewer's previous work indicates that at least some persons who attempt suicide are quite sincere in their attempt to end life, expect to die, and except for chance, fortunate medical intervention, or the person's ignorance or ineptitude, *would die* as a result of the suicidal action; or that many other suicidal attempts have at least in part the character of a gamble with death, a sort of Russian



E. STENGEL

roulette, the outcome of which to some extent depends on chance.

The authors also declare that "in our society every suicidal warning or attempt has an appeal function whatever the mental state in which it is made." To me, this does not seem to apply at least to some of his patients whose attempts Stengel calls "absolutely dangerous with serious suicidal intent," attempts in which the purpose of the act was clearly to end existence, irrespective of the conscious, preconscious, or unconscious reasons *why*, and irrespective of any social consequences that might follow. If, indeed, an 'appeal' to others for help is a primary function of such attempts, Stengel has not explained why this method of appeal is chosen in preference to other perhaps less dramatic methods, nor does he demonstrate clearly that other persons experience the suicidal attempt as a clear appeal for help.

The disappointment which occurred when I read this book, then, apparently resulted from the realization that the authors do not, in fact, demonstrate the validity of the basic propositions they present. That these propositions are nevertheless probably valid, I am prepared to admit; that this study provides for the student of suicide and attempted suicide a thought-provoking approach to the understanding of such phenomena, I cannot deny. My basic criticism is simply that one expects and hopes for more from a Stengel.

## The Paradoxes of Guidance

Randall W. Hoffmann and Robert Plutchik

*Small-Group Discussion in Orientation and Teaching.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. xvi + 168. \$4.00.

Reviewed by VIRGINIA VOEKS

who is Professor of Psychology at San Diego State College where she teaches learning theory, developmental psychology, and social psychology and serves in the Personnel Service Center (student counseling). She is the author of *On Becoming an Educated Person: An Orientation to College* (Saunders, 1957; CP, Sept. 1958, 3, 266f., where you can find 71 apt words about her achievements and personality).

THE authors have presented a case for orientation courses—their kind, and for small-group discussion. Special courses are needed, they believe, to help students profit more fully from college and these courses should utilize small-group techniques. A variety of such techniques is described: role playing, buzz sessions, brainstorming, and others.

Often the discussion is tedious. "Circular seating" takes up most of pages 29 and 57. The purpose of orientation is repeated three times within six sentences on pages 10 and 11, reappears on pages 23, 56, 75, 90 (twice), 92, and elsewhere. Repetition occurs with dreary frequency.

In other ways too, the book is written carelessly. "Among the student body, there are *usually* upperclassmen who are active in student government" (p. 69, my italics here and below). "It is not recommended . . . that evaluation procedures of this sort be used *too often*" (p. 71). "Since most college teachers may not be *overly familiar* with the group-centered process" (p. 99). Page 3 says: "Weaknesses . . . are pretty well summarized by Daniel J. Grier." Nothing from Grier follows, but instead a quotation from Lloyd-Jones. Page 114 refers to a list "in the Appendix," but

no such list is in the appendix or elsewhere.

Moot propositions are categorically presented, often with no clue as to what if any facts support them. "The lecture . . . is the most common technique and the one that seems to produce the least results" (p. 6). "If a student really wants to learn how to study, one need do little more for him than to let him know that there is instructional material galore" (p. 9). "The student who is dependent on authority is found almost as frequently among seniors as among freshmen, except in institutions which practice the philosophy that the job of teaching is to make the students independent of the teacher" (p. 20). These are amazing statements. Some clue to their factual basis would be welcome.

Basic philosophical confusion exists in this book. The authors insist that every individual must be free to remain silent (p. 38). Then they recant (p. 57). They urge the teacher (pp. 33, 38, 110, 111) to convince the student he has a non-evaluative friend whom he can trust with any confidence, any problem. After posing as a nonevaluative confidant, the teacher makes a written evaluation of each student's attitude and potential, this report being "permanently filed with the student's official records . . . available when any special problems come up" (p. 109). The information is used, for example, in deciding whom to drop from college.

We are told "the good group leader will emanate . . . acceptance" (p. 30). This attitude, it seems, is important for freeing constructive forces within the student (pp. 30-31). Yet we are advised that when a teacher "has negative feelings . . . he should hide them" (p. 31). Rather than learning to reduce them? On page 34 we are told to "appear to give equal attention and weight to every statement no matter what the nature of the statement." Whether the statement conveys an individual's most creative idea or is merely a casual aside, give it equal weight—or rather, appear to do so. An undercurrent of pretense runs through the book. One wonders finally whether the authors care about acceptance or merely the appearance of acceptance.

This is an extremely spotty book. Ac-

ceptance is beautifully delineated. Subtle and profound distinctions are made between permissiveness and laissez-faire. Large parts are thoughtfully written (cf. much of chapters 2, 3, and 10). These would help the serious teacher further the growth of his students. Other parts could harm both students and professors, damaging their faith in themselves, undermining their trust in one another.

## Franco-American Psychotechnics

J.-M. Faverge, J. Leplat, and B. Guiguet

*L'adaptation de la machine à l'homme.* Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1958. Pp. 211. 700 fr.

Reviewed by JOSEF BROŽEK

who, following his graduation from Charles University in Prague in 1937, served for two years as psychotechnologist in a large shoe-manufacturing plant. For the next nineteen years he was engaged in research in the Laboratory of Physiological Hygiene at the University of Minnesota, beginning as a research worker and advancing steadily to a full professorship. He is now Professor of Psychology at Lehigh University and chairman of its Department of Psychology.

As it happens, all of the four recent books dealing in French with problems of human work were published during the year *CP* was born or just prior to 1956 (see A. Ombredane and J.-M. Faverge, *L'Analyse du Travail*, 1955; G. Lehmann, *Physiologie Pratique du Travail*, 1955, transl. from German; H. Piéron, M. Coumèto, G. Durandin, and G. de Montmollin, *Le Maniement Humain*, 1956; C. Simonin, *Médecine du Travail*, 1956). Thus it is, in part at least, a result of accidents of timing that none of these publications has been brought to the attention of *CP*'s readers.

While studies of the 'human motor' (*moteur humain*) and of fatigue have a long tradition in France, the experi-

mental analysis of man-machine systems is a recent and largely an Anglo-American development—though it is wise to look through the German 'psychotechnic' publications of the 'twenties before claiming priorities with certainty. The interest of French scientists in human engineering was strengthened as a result of several missions of European specialists in the broad area of studies of human work who visited American universities, private and governmental research centers, and industrial establishments having active programs in human engineering. The present volume undertakes to provide an introduction to this field.

In its general temper the volume resembles perhaps most closely Ernst J. McCormick's *Human Engineering* (McGraw-Hill, 1957), an introductory textbook that apparently was not available to the authors and which, at any rate, is not cited in their brief bibliography. It is a pity that no bibliographic data are given by the French authors for journal articles referred to in the text. This fact may be regretted as much by the French readers interested in the American and British papers, as by those not familiar with but interested in the French contributions. At times both the author and the date of the publication are cited but frequently the citation is a simple *d'après* Jenkins, *d'après* Lehmann, *d'après* Chappat.

WHILE the authors of this volume have relied heavily on American experimental data, one can perceive differences in approach that are not without interest. For instance, whereas the overwhelming majority of the American studies were carried out by or for the Armed Forces, the present authors find themselves closer to industry in their inspiration and their experimentation. Two of the authors, Drs. Leplat and Guiguet, are associated with the Center of Applied Psychology (*Centre d'Études et de Recherches Psychotechniques*). In the frame of its operations, they have carried out studies on the design of equipment in a variety of industries, including the textile and machine-tool industry. Some of their results are incorporated into the text. The senior author, Dr. J.-M. Faverge, is professor at the



Institute of Psychology of the University of Paris and combines an interest in the use of statistical methods in applied psychology (*Méthodes Statistiques en Psychologie Appliquée*, 1954) with an interest in industrial problems (*Analysis of Work*, in French, 1954).

The value of the book to the non-French scientific public consists in the presentation of a small number of new facts—new especially to those who have not followed the French periodical literature—and, more importantly, perhaps, in the formulation of some general concepts and approaches. These further-reaching ideas are developed, in particular, in the introductory chapters (description of work in terms of responses to stimuli, diagnosis of problems) as well as in the concluding chapter (experimentation and criteria). The core of the volume deals with displays, controls, considerations of body dimensions, and physical environment (light, sound, vibration, and temperature). The French readers, whose access to publications in English is limited either on account of the language barrier alone or because of the unavailability of foreign literature, will surely welcome this summary. Presumably this is the first book-length treatment, in French, of systematic experimental analysis of the adaptation of machines and tools, workspace and environment, to man's capacities and limitations.

THERE are some amusing errors reflecting the inherent difficulties of all intercultural communications. Thus the famous studies on the effects of the 'interpersonal climate,' carried out at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company, are credited to Mr. Hawthorne. The problems of interpreting the text will also plague the non-French reader, especially since the dictionaries at his disposal are likely to leave him on occasion high and dry in respect of technical terms. This reviewer, for one, is still not completely sure of what were the specific *engins de chantier* that were included in the authors' human-engineering studies carried out for the Commissariat Général de Productivité.

At times the authors cite second-hand information. Thus they give Henri Piéron, without further specifications, as

their source of data on performance and blinking rate as dependent on the level of illumination (p. 162). The data differ from those originally reported by E. Simonson and this reviewer (*J. opt. Soc. Amer.*, 1948, **38**, 384-397) only in expressing the level of illumination in lux units rather than in foot-candles.

Once upon a time, American psychologists—through Lewis Terman of the Stanford-Binet fame—borrowed important professional tools from their French colleagues. In the present volume the borrowing is in reverse. It is good that ideas can travel in more than one direction, and without passports.

## Three-in-One Oil for Education's Wheels

Sidney L. Pressey, Francis P. Robinson, and John E. Horrocks

*Psychology in Education.* (A new edition of *Psychology and the New Education*, 1933, 1944.) New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xiv + 658. \$6.50.

Reviewed by JOHN W. GUSTAD

*Dr. Gustad is at present Director of the College Teacher Program of the New England Board of Higher Education, which undertakes to worry about obtaining enough college teachers in New England and employs psychologists' personnel methods in assessing the available material. Actually he is on leave from the University of Maryland, where he is Professor of Psychology and Director of the Counseling Center. He has taught many courses in psychology at several colleges and has written on the teaching of psychology to both undergraduates and graduates.*

IN 1933, when Pressey, the senior author, first wrote this book, education, to use the expression of a recent presidential candidate, was being dragged kicking and screaming into the twentieth century. The title he selected for the first edition, *Psychology and the New Education*, reflected the vision and almost missionary zeal which he and some of his colleagues felt. For them, psychology had something of importance to say about improving the conduct of human affairs, and they said it forcefully and to considerable effect.

Now, in this post-Sputnik era, a noticeable reaction has set in, one which threatens to turn back the educational

clock to formal discipline and the 'training of the mind.' That and other developments make for a special timeliness in the appearance of this book in 1959.

When Pressey first wrote the book in 1933, enough had been learned in psychology to indicate that many educational methods were outmoded. Measurement had progressed to the point where reasonably reliable assessment of individual differences on many traits was possible. The research on learning had challenged old conceptions and suggested new approaches. Enough was known about the developmental processes to convince most persons that children were not just little, pocket-size adults, that they had their own special problems and characteristics with implications for educational practice.

By 1944, there had been enough changes to warrant a new, revised edition. Pressey was then joined in this by his colleague, Robinson, who brought to the task his work in the developing technology of psychology, especially in counseling and remedial education. Now, fifteen years later, Horrocks has been added to the team and contributes his very extensive knowledge of both learning and development.

The authors are all men of eminence

in psychology. All are professors at The Ohio State University where Horrocks, in addition, is Director of the Institute for Child Development and Family Life. The senior author, Pressey, is truly one of the pioneers in applied, especially in educational, psychology. For more than forty years, his work has ranged over many topics, mostly concerned with students and their problems. Robinson is a leader in the fields of counseling and remedial education. The work he and his students have done on the analysis of the counseling interview constitutes one of the most impressive bodies of research anywhere in psychology. His texts on counseling and study methods are classics. Horrocks is equally well known for his research and writing in the fields of learning and development. His book on adolescence is a standard. Together, these three make up an impressive team.

**T**HE book they have produced is a good book. In some ways, however, it seems, if not disappointing, at least unsatisfying. One reason for this is that this is not really one book; it is three. Although the authors said that they collaborated extensively, their individual sections are quite different in emphasis and tone. Thus the book lacks the unity and cohesiveness its topic deserves.

Of course, in fairness, it must be admitted that, although education has been the subject (or, at least, the setting) of psychological research ever since the days of Stanley Hall, the field of educational psychology is still something of a stepchild. There is little or no agreement on how much of psychology belongs in a book of this sort. The reviewer finds it difficult to think of an area of psychology which is not relevant to education, but textbooks in educational psychology, by tradition, tend to restrict themselves to such topics as school learning, development, and measurement. In many ways, this constraint is unfortunate.

The present edition was undertaken in an attempt to recognize four major developments. First of all, developmental psychology has been broadened in scope to include the entire life span. Secondly, there is a need to bring together, synthesize, and draw the im-

plications from the growing literature on learning. Thirdly, the trend toward greater individualization of education continues. Finally, adult education is of increasing importance.

After an introductory chapter, there follow three sections dealing with the first three of these matters (adult education is treated but sketchily in the last chapter). The first section, which was the principal responsibility of Pressey, deals with development in childhood and youth. It is the least satisfactory section. The major deficiency of this section lies in its failure to cope with a number of the most important recent developments. In many respects, it could just as well have been written in 1944—or even in 1933.

The different developmental aspects—physical, intellectual, emotional, social, and interests—are treated separately. The difficulty is that they are scarcely integrated. In Chapter 3, which discusses abilities, nothing is said about the rapidly growing literature based on factor-analytic studies of the organization of abilities. The entire topic of physique and intellect is covered in less than a single page. Chapter 4, on interests, has no integrating theory around which to organize the materials presented, and it fails to mention the several extant theories (Blau et al., Super, Tiedeman, and Roe). Chapter 5 rests on an outdated set of ideas which do not reflect the recent experimental and clinical work on emotions.

**O**N the other hand, Part II, which was the responsibility of Horrocks and which deals with learning, is a first-rate job. One might wish that more attention had been paid to the 'experimental' learning literature, but Horrocks has done a careful review of the school-learning studies. This section progresses logically and rests on well-stated definitions of terms and concepts. The section is not, however, clearly related to the first, the one on development, and that is unfortunate. One deficiency (as it seemed to this reviewer) is that, in reporting on research, not enough is said about why and how the studies were made. One hears only of what came out. If we have learned anything in the past few years, it is that facts change, that

students need to learn how to obtain and interpret new facts. It is not that every prospective teacher should be a researcher, but he or she should know why and how research is done.

In a few places, Horrocks might have expanded his discussion. In Chapter 10, for instance, he simply itemizes seven conclusions about learning. This distillation from the literature would be improved by comments and discussion of implications. The same criticism applies to his list of the factors (Chap. 7) involved in readiness.

The chapter on measurement has both good and bad features. There is little or no discussion of test theory; students may have a hard time in seeing the problems involved in measurement. The section on validity presents only one type—correlational; and the definition of reliability is the old-fashioned one that reliability refers to the consistency of test scores. On the other hand, the part of the chapter which deals with nontest evaluation, the observation and analysis of behavior outside the classroom, is a welcome and excellent addition to the usual discussion of measurement.

The last section, which is principally the work of Robinson, is concerned with remediation and counseling. A number of very interesting case reports are presented here, but it is doubtful whether the student will learn from these pages either how or why a case study is made. The discussion of the counseling process varies widely in level. Many students will fail to see the real importance of such problems as 'degree of counselor lead' in the interview. Moreover, the counseling process is for the most part described in a practical way with little attention to the 'why' kinds of questions that should be answered.

Very welcome is the emphasis on what, for want of a better term, is called "positive mental health." Robinson is right in turning attention away from pathology, away from the notion that an absence of symptoms is the same as being well, to the idea that the goal is really one of trying to help each pupil achieve the greatest success and satisfaction of which he is capable.

Despite its limitations, this is a good book. Perhaps its major deficiency is

one that it shares with most other books in educational psychology: too much emphasis on so-called facts, too little attention to the very important theoretical problems raised by those facts and by the problems of children in school. It is not enough that prospective teachers learn about development, learning, and measurement. They need a set of concepts, integrative when possible, a kind of coin of vantage from which they can view their students and the flow of literature about students and education.

Of course, one can go overboard in this direction. Some clinicians, for ex-

ample, have become so intrigued with the so-called dynamic theories of personality that they have virtually cut themselves off from even the possibility of experimentation and empirical checking. There must be a best middle ground. Because education is so terribly important and because good education is almost impossible without well-trained teachers, it would behoove psychologists of all persuasions to devote more time and attention to seeing what problems education poses and what psychology might be able to contribute to their solution. The fault, dear Brutus . . .

Perhaps most stimulating for the social scientist, however, is the essay by Dr. John Benjamin on *Prediction and Psychopathological Theory*. This title is most appropriate since, in the process of discussing predictions which were or were not borne out, it becomes necessary to explicate one's own theoretical assumptions. Here, the reader is treated to discussions of the concept of mental health, of the different kinds of clinical intuition, of the role of the investigator's personal development in leading him to useful discoveries, and of the importance of the first years of life (as opposed to the second, third, etc.) in the genesis of later pathology. It is clear that Dr. Benjamin could not do justice to all the aspects of so extensive a project, and yet the reviewer hopes that in future publications he will tell us more about those predictions which could not be tested because it was felt that the nature of the observations collected was inadequate.

The work of Dr. Richard Meili further exemplifies the longitudinal approach and especially the use of repeated filming as a tool of observation. These films make it uniquely possible to pick up nuances of the various points of development and to make comparisons of them. As the author realizes, there is always the problem of interpreting the meaning of an extensive set of data.

THE shorter term developmental studies deal with such subjects as rheumatoid arthritis and rumination. In relation to the first Dr. Blom and Dr. Whipple report the development of a method of rating cases and use these results to distinguish the arthritic and asthmatic child and its family. The importance of carefully studying the nature of the groups being compared can be seen in these authors' discovery that at least one further differentiation within the arthritis group is necessary: whether or not the children were hospitalized.

The description of rumination (the active bringing up into the mouth of swallowed food) by Dr. Renata and Dr. Eugenio Gaddini shows how a phenomenon, even though rare, can teach us something about the nature of the mother-child relationship. It is, how-

## Dynamics of Childhood: Concepts

Lucie Jessner and Eleanor Pavenstedt (Eds.)

*Dynamic Psychopathology in Childhood*. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1959. Pp. xii + 315. \$8.75.

Reviewed by CHRISTOPH M. HEINICKE

Dr. Heinicke is a psychoanalytic therapist, with a PhD from the Department of Social Relations at Harvard University, later engaged at Anna Freud's clinic in London, still later at the Center for Advanced Studies in the Behavioral Sciences, and now at the Mount Zion Psychiatric Clinic in San Francisco and Assistant Professor of Psychology at Stanford University. He hopes soon to publish his studies on the effects of separating two-year-old children from their parents, and is currently doing research on therapy of children with learning problems. In CP he reviewed Hoch and Zubin's *Psychopathology of Childhood* (Grune and Stratton, 1955; CP, Mar. 1957, 2, 63f.).

IN this volume two psychoanalytic psychiatrists, Drs. Lucie Jessner and Eleanor Pavenstedt, have assembled twelve essays describing various clinical investigations of the child. The editors have themselves had extensive experience with such investigations and this fact is reflected in the high quality and range of the studies represented.

Unless one reads very carefully the introduction, it is at first a little difficult to identify the general theme of the volume and to say why these, rather than other, studies were chosen. For the reader familiar with the field this deficit will, however, be quickly overcome as he concentrates on one or another essay. For those less sophisticated, these essays can be thought of as representing a range of investigations of the problem of "validating findings and concepts" as first suggested by Sigmund Freud.

The first two essays perhaps best represent the range from the traditional clinical observations to clinical observations made in the context of a more systematic design. Clinical observations on a single case cannot tempt other clinicians to carry out further investigations, unless both the phenomena described and the theoretical basis from which they were observed are sufficiently clear. The reviewer would be disappointed, however, if the essay by Dr. Helene Deutsch does not stimulate more systematic research on the effects of the loss of a nurse in early childhood.

ever, difficult to determine from this study which factors in the child's life represent the crucial "serious frustrations" leading to rumination. Thus the fact of hospitalization, not explicitly mentioned by the authors, may have been a factor in the onset of rumination in several of the cases. The reviewer believes that carefully designed studies employing contrast groups and involving repeated and intensive contacts over a period of time will elucidate more clearly which factors are likely to be most important. The work of Dr. Myriam David and Genevieve Appell would be an example of this, for their study represents the kind of intensive and continuous observations of infants now being made by several investigators, and not included in this volume.

The report by Dr. Eveleen Rexford on the study of antisocial young children and their families does employ a contrast-group design; this group is compared with neurotic nondelinquent children and their families. Having distinguished the two groups diagnostically and carried out various pilot follow-up and process studies, these authors intend to follow their two groups in treatment. The reviewer notes that this combination of systematic diagnostic work-up with consequent therapy, undertaken with two different but comparable groups, is an especially promising approach in studying certain problems of child development.

Equally promising in this respect is the simultaneous analysis of mother and child as reported by Dr. Melitta Sperling. Although the springboard for such an approach may be a technical one, in this case the elucidation of the nature of the mother-child relationship in sexually deviant children is difficult to match for clarity and depth of understanding.

In this review an attempt has been made to highlight some of the basic approaches being used in the field of clinical child investigation and represented in the volume under discussion. An excellent essay on the neurophysiology of the newborn by Dr. Julius Richmond and Dr. Earle Lipton should be added to the list. Many of the methodological details recorded by the various investigators deserve special approbation.

Lack of space prevents comment on the articles by Dr. Lucie Jessner on hospitalized latency children, by Drs. Rudolph Ekstein and Seymour Friedman on psychotic play, and by Dr. James Proctor on countertransference. These papers demonstrate once more the high level of the essays chosen for

this volume. As the editors claim, the chapters of this volume do, indeed, represent well the various observations and attempts at validation of concepts being made by clinical child researchers today. Moreover, the examples given open many refreshing "avenues to the future."

## Was the Master a Mystic?

David Bakan

*Sigmund Freud and the Jewish Mystical Tradition.* Princeton, N. J.: D. Van Nostrand, 1958. Pp. xx + 326. \$5.50.

Reviewed by NORMAN A. MILGRAM

*Dr. Milgram, with a PhD from Boston University, is now clinical psychologist in the Children's Service of the Nebraska Psychiatric Institute in Omaha and also Associate in Medical Psychology at the Nebraska College of Medicine. He has himself a Jewish education and has long been interested in Jewish and Hebrew educational matters.*

THIS is not the first book to suggest a relationship between Freud and Judaism, and it will not be the last, but it is one of the most provocative. Other views about this relationship have focused on such concepts as extreme sexual mindedness, moral courage and braininess, and self-hatred. Needless to say, such opinions are largely superficial and frequently prejudicial. They have added little to our understanding.

The present volume is a scholarly essay which analyzes the Jewish origins of Freud's writings in terms of a specific hypothesis. It is *scholarly* because its author, David Bakan, Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Missouri, is one of the few people who approach this topic grounded in both psychoanalysis and Judaism; other writers have possibly been more expert in one or the other of these areas, but few have been competent in both. It is an *essay* because in its structure it is loosely organized and discursive. It *analyzes* because the author applies psychoanalytic techniques

of interpretation to his material. It deals with *Jewish origins* because Bakan asserts that "a full appreciation of the development of psychoanalysis is essentially incomplete"—the influence of the scientific and philosophical trends of western society notwithstanding—"unless it is viewed . . . against the history of Jewish mystical thought."

Initially Bakan has hypothesized that the transmission of the Jewish mystical tradition or cabala to Freud was probably unconscious and mediated by his cultural milieu. His parents and wife came from Chassidic settings which were permeated with this tradition. He lived in a virtual ghetto all of his life (but for trips abroad) and associated almost entirely with Jews as friends, associates, and patients. He collected a number of Jewish stories (Chassidic legends?) and only recently it was learned that he included in his personal library books on Jewish mysticism, among these a translation of the Zohar, the major document in the Jewish mystical tradition. (D. Bakan, Freud and the Zohar, *Commentary*, 1960, 29, 65-66.) Yet scarcely does the essay get off the ground before Bakan is writing *as if* Freud were a secret student of the cabala and a conscious participant in its struggles and issues. In this *as if* quality, the book is remarkably similar to Freud's *Moses and Monotheism*, for which we may reserve comment until later.



In Part I Freud's early childhood, his Jewish education, his lifelong exposure to virulent antisemitism, his repudiation of religious belief and practice, and his proud affirmation of his Jewish identification are discussed. Bakan makes the case for Freud's concealing possible cabalistic influences in his thinking in fear of compounding the opposition to his theories.

Part II treats briefly of the history of Jewish mysticism from the esoteric personal experiences of the early cabalists through the Messianic mass movement of Sabbatai Zevi to the social revolutionary forces implicit in Chasidism. The treatment is sketchy, but it makes easy reading for people unfamiliar with these complex ideas and events.

Part III analyzes Freud's identification with Moses as revealed in his two essays on Moses. The unusual circumstances surrounding their publication, the extremely speculative conclusions advanced—conclusions which do not find support in fact or measured opinion—suggest that Freud was working out his own personal problem in relation to Moses. In *Moses and Michelangelo* (1914) Freud concluded that the statue depicted Moses struggling against the impulse to break the tablets and punish the backsliding Jews. Bakan interprets this view to imply on the mystical level that the Law-Giver will not punish Freud for asserting the freedom of the Jew from the yoke of the Law, and, on the psychological level, that the superego will not destroy the individual who rebels against its hoary prohibitions and expresses his impulses more freely.

*Moses and Monotheism* (1939) continued this theme with Bakan further asserting that Freud's turning of Moses into a Gentile was wish-fulfillment on his part to resolve the problem of antisemitism. Freud's view based on the Lamarckian concept of the genetic transmission of cultural characteristics had been that Jews were both envied as 'the chosen people' and hated for promulgating a severe ethical code. If it could be shown that the Jews were themselves victimized by the Egyptian-Moses, that his doctrines were Egyptian in origin, and that the Jews subsequently killed



DAVID BAKAN

this interloper—then presumably they would be free of the cross of antisemitism. On the psychological level, Bakan construes this metaphor as the permissive superego of the psychoanalyst replacing the punitive superego of the Judaeo-Christian tradition.

Part IV proposes the metaphor of the Devil as a key to understanding the abrupt transition in Freud's life from prepsychoanalytic to psychoanalytic period. The death of his father, his depressed episodes and self-analysis, his correspondence with Fliess, and his writing *The Interpretation of Dreams* Bakan examines in relation to the concept of the Devil as suspended superego. As one follows Bakan in reading between the lines of Freud's life and work, he can only marvel at the richness of a conception that is so convincing without necessarily being true.

Part V details the similarities between psychoanalysis and cabala in techniques of interpretation and the centrality of sexuality in human experience. That Bakan did not present this material earlier indicates that he did not intend it to serve as evidence supporting his hypothesis as much as the elaborations that follow from it. The reviewer also notes that Bakan fails to acknowledge A. A. Roback (*Jewish Influence in Modern Thought*, Jewish Forum Publishing Co., 1929, 159-166) who clearly anticipated him in several of the foregoing comparisons.

This book is likely to provoke a hostile reaction in many readers because it examines controversial topics, raises a host of psychological and philosophical issues, and interprets latent content in

the grand manner of psychoanalysis and cabala. In addition, by his own admission (pp. xf.) and presentation Bakan exposes himself to the *argumentum ad hominem*. Such a tack is grossly unfair, but this reviewer cannot suppress a closing note of irony—because the irony of the situation is so palpable—If Moses was a Jew whom Freud needed to make into a Gentile, was Freud a Jewish psychoanalyst whom Bakan needed to make into a cabalist? As the Devil's advocate I would recommend this book highly to readers willing to suspend their scientific superegos. The experience will be illuminating. If you have a positivistic axe to grind, then the book will rub you the wrong way.

## Imposing Impostor

Robert Crichton

*The Great Impostor*. New York: Random House, 1959. Pp. 218. \$3.95.

Reviewed by JOHN H. PORTER

who is a psychiatrist, the Director of the Briggs Clinic at the Boston State Hospital.

ALTHOUGH few have had the publicity and notoriety of Ferdinand Waldo Demara, impostors are far from rare and are well known in history and fiction. In fiction, Thomas Mann's *Confessions of Felix Krull* is an outstanding exposition of an impostor and shows great depth of understanding on the author's part. On the other hand, I know of no comparable story of a real impostor.

Robert Crichton's account of Demara has resulted in a book that is readable, fast-moving, and highly entertaining; and he makes a few attempts at understanding the nature of the man he is discussing. However, for those of us who are psychiatrists, psychologists, sociologists, or otherwise interested in the 'why's' of human behavior, the book leaves much to be desired. Mr. Crichton was, of course, largely dependent on what Mr. Demara chose to tell him;

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and Mr. Demara is a temperamental, at times a recalcitrant, at times a grandiose, and always an unpredictable man. It is also understandable that his family should have wanted to avoid further discussion of their son, and that many of his victims were embarrassed at telling how they had been taken in.

For various reasons, this book, which traces the life of an impostor from his boyhood in Lawrence, Massachusetts, through his many impostures as a cleric, an educator, a surgeon in the Canadian Navy, a prison warden, and many more, has many gaps and many probable inaccuracies.

Mr. Crichton, son of author-editor Kyle Crichton, is a free-lance writer whose articles have appeared in magazines such as the *Saturday Evening Post* and *Life*. Harvard educated and still young (thirty-four years), he has had a variety of experiences from chicken ranching to editing a magazine. His fast-moving pace and sense of humor have been put to good use in writing this book, but one must wonder how well qualified he is to recognize, understand, and judge what is important in the background of such a complex and enigmatic man as Demara.

WHETHER due to the reticence of Demara and his family or to the author's failure to appreciate its importance, the entire first part of this life from birth through adolescence is covered in thirty-two pages. It is, of course, in this brief section that we come closest to understanding the man and the powerful inner forces that will not allow him to achieve anything in his own name, despite his sharp and brilliant mind, that pushes him from one grandiose role to the next, and on always to eventual discovery, unmasking, and disgrace. There are places in the biography where Demara himself offers real insight into his own behavior, but for the most part his explanations are rationalizations and projections that serve only to fool himself and his many victims.

There is little information to tell us of his relationships with his mother as a boy, but we do get a striking picture of his father and the feelings of his son Fred for him. Demara, Sr., was a gran-

diose and unrealistic man with a "flair for the flamboyant" and rich tastes. He must have been an imposing, frightening, and awe-inspiring man when, on the boy's fourth birthday, the servants were called in and told that, henceforth, young Fred was to be addressed as "Mister Demara" and obeyed. This is heady stuff for a four-year-old and certainly designed to lend the cloak of reality to his fantasies of omnipotence.

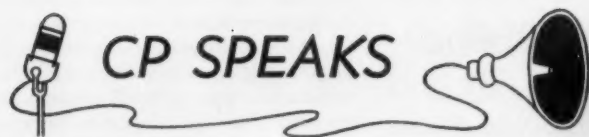
Add to this the fact that Fred was a lonely boy with no close friends and was overindulged at home, and we can see the stage already being set for his future difficulties with little chance to test his fantasies against reality. The crash of the family finances when the boy was eleven, reducing his once glorious father to a weak, beaten man, was the tragic end to this early period.

This same sequence of events is described quite well in two excellent papers on impostors in the *Psychoanalytic Quarterly*: one by Helene Deutsch in 1955, and one by Phyllis Greenacre in 1958. Demara fits readily into the pattern they see in at least a number of impostors.

With this brief picture of his childhood, we can begin, at least, to speculate on the 'why's' of Demara's behavior. We can understand something of the little boy who found his dreams of omnipotence made into reality by his father and then was never able to give up this easy way of achieving power, status, and self-esteem. We can ask questions about the man who is continually seeking an identity in new roles, desperately avoiding the original intense identification with a glorious father who, overnight, met disaster. And we can begin to understand the overpowering guilt ("I'm rotten through and through!") over his fantasied responsibility for father's disastrous fall that makes it necessary for him to always be caught and disgraced in the end.

*Postscript:* Mr. Demara, when last heard from, was in Hollywood, the true land of make-believe, making a film in which he plays eight roles and supervising the filming of his own biography.





## CP SPEAKS

### WHAT IS CP?

At last CP has been analyzed and therapied. The Council Editors of the American Psychological Association has in Washington a set of twelve magic couches on which lie the twelve journals while the twelve editors, in an upside-down group therapy, extirpate the conflicts and resolve the dilemmas of their dozen media of communication. CP was caught in three dilemmas, and these are they, along now with their resolutions.

(1) *Should CP move toward being more of a magazine or toward being more of a journal?* It is called *A Journal of Book Reviews*, but the name *Contemporary Psychology* was originally chosen to provide freedom for it to move toward being a magazine of general interest—something, it has often been said, that you might even find on a newsstand. Well, *Daedalus*, that brilliant product of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, is found on some special public newsstands where brows are high; might not CP interest a non-professional intellectual public in these days when psychology interests everyone? Certainly CP could be moved in that direction, toward the quality that would make it a magazine, but then it would be shifted away from some other characteristics to which we turn in a moment. Some day the psychologists may learn to talk interesting, sound fact to a general public, as psychiatrists now talk to doctors in *The Psychiatric Bulletin*, or else others may undertake this responsibility for psychology as the *Scientific American* does for general science. CP, at least for the time being, will give up its aspiration to see the world and be seen by it and will devote its attention primarily to psychologists. It will not have to change much to do that.

(2) *Should CP move toward distinction or stick with democracy in its se-*

*lection of books for review?* There are those who say, "But why does CP review so many mediocre books? Why not skip the many poor books and concentrate on the better and the best?" That must be the aim of the *Saturday Review*. How would you pick the best? The consultants, formal and informal, would have to judge and advise, and their authoritarian decisions, which, of course, exist now at a lower level, would come to seem more tyrannical at higher elevations. CP has a standing challenge for a reader to name a book that should have been reviewed and yet was not. No one has yet met that challenge—except when books have been lost to unresponsive reviewers. CP could raise the threshold for selection, and the readers who read to be stimulated might like the change, whereas the readers who read for information about many books, good and bad, might regret the absence of the commonplace books. It is odd, but CP feels more pressure from the writers of books than from the readers of its reviews, and the writers appear to want democratic coverage, something a little nearer *Psychological Abstracts* than reviews of only the more outstanding books. Almost every writer is jittery lest he be not reviewed at all. He seems to prefer the security of likely review to the slimmer chance of being elevated to the glory of distinction. Democracy always thus favors mediocrity; yet it has also the advantage of avoiding some of the injustices of despotic selection. CP, at least for the time being, is going to stick with that democracy to which it and its clientele are now accustomed.

(3) *Should CP do more to support scholarship in its reviewing?* There are some who think it should. Scholarship is not quite the same as distinction. CP now reviews distinguished books at some length—say, 2000 words for a single book and a single reviewer—but it asks

the reviewer to remain intelligible to 80% of CP's readers. The plea for more scholarship is a request for greater sophistication and greater technicality, expert talking to expert. There must be some place for this kind of review, say these critics; where else if not in CP? The critics do not seem to want many of these long critical reviews of peer by peer. Four or five 6000-word reviews a year of very special books, intelligible to 20% of CP's readers, might satisfy them—especially when they remember what printed pages cost the profession nowadays. Well, CP has already gone a little way in this direction. It asks that long reviews of very technical books be written for large and small type, the large for the 80%, the general reader, and the small for the 20%, the specialist in the field. It says now that it can give, with its present resources in available pages, space to a few very long critical special reviews of particularly important books, if an especially competent reviewer can be persuaded to undertake the review. It is not, however, going to be easy to spot these special books in advance. The consultants can recognize the important books whose significance can be understood by anyone, but the esoteric book may get missed, as well as the one that seems simple and straightforward but in which some expert can see peculiar implications, not at all obvious without explanations and possibly not obvious then to the unsophisticated. CP can have this kind of review, once in a while, if the experts will become CP's mentors, will write to say why such a book is not so ordinary as it looks, how it might be reviewed, who should be begged to do the reviewing—who first, who second, who third. Otherwise CP, at least for the time being, will go on its way, talking to most of the readers most of the time, emphasizing important and distinguished books as it and its consultants detect them, but without many of those discoveries which extract genius from the misleading complacency of a demure volume.

Does all this sound as if professionalism, democracy, and sophistication were pressing to make CP a little duller than it has been? Perhaps they are pressing, but CP thinks they will not succeed.

CP is determined to be a mature magazine, and to CP's mind there is no symptom of maturity so valid as a sense of humor—about human nature, about the man with whom you disagree, about your own self. It ought to be possible to meet these three sober demands without going dull and CP is rededicating itself to this undertaking.

#### ANNA FREUD ON CHILD ANALYSIS

THE International Universities Press has put out a small book by Anna Freud under the title *The Psycho-Analytical Treatment of Children*. Of it Dr. Robert W. White writes:

It consists of reprints of works already familiar: *Introduction to the Technique of the Analysis of Children*, first published in the United States as a Nervous and Mental Disease Monograph in 1927; *The Theory of Children's Analysis*, from the *International Journal of Psychoanalysis*, 1929; and *Indications for Child Analysis*, from the first volume of *The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child* (1946). A convenient gathering of Miss Freud's modest but sage and significant contributions to the topic.

#### STANFORD HYPNOTIC SUSCEPTIBILITY SCALE

HERE is news about hypnosis, the effort of Hilgard and Stanford to get the magic out of Mesmer's descendant and objective measurement in. The commentator is again Dr. Robert W. White.

André M. Weitzenhoffer and Ernest R. Hilgard deserve the thanks of research workers with hypnotism for bringing out the *Stanford Hypnotic Susceptibility Scale* (Consulting Psychologists Press, Palo Alto, 1959). The booklet consists not only of specific suggestions that enter into the 12-point scoring scheme, but also of highly detailed instructions for establishing rapport and other more elusive features of the hypnotist's art. In effect it is a manual of instruction for hypnotic technique. The standardization group consisted of 124 Stanford undergraduates, 64 men and 60 women. "We believe," the authors say, "that results from various laboratories can be made more readily comparable and the data and laws of hypnosis placed on a firmer scientific basis." This scale is certainly one of the ways to achieve that result.

—E. G. B.

## Man of Enterprise: Whither Bound?

Richard LaPiere

*The Freudian Ethic: An Analysis of the Subversion of American Character.* New York: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, 1959. Pp. x + 299. \$5.00.

Reviewed by REGINA H. WESTCOTT

whose long, active, and enormously varied life shows three changes in professional emphasis—teacher and academic counselor, consulting psychologist in private practice, director for a community of a project in family and community development concerned primarily in sound development, psychotherapy being one resource. She has found the experiences and revelations of the project rewarding and exciting. Feeling that these have now reached the stage of evaluation and published report, she has taken up temporary residence in Holmes Beach, Florida, for this purpose.

THERE are two elements indispensable in any concept of American character at its best: first, the ranking of humanity as mankind's dominant value, and second, keen, deeply ingrained sensitivity as to what is humanizing and what is dehumanizing, a sensitivity which protests whatever is humanly weakening, corruptive, or subversive. The present dither into which our nation has been thrown by being called into world leadership while still of tender age has made us unduly susceptible to Russia's brash cunning, i.e., so maneuvering the Cold War as to draw us, all hot and bothered, into competitions shaped by Russia's dominant value rather than by our own. However, we can feel some assurance that American character has not been subverted past the point of no return so long as there are vigorous, investigative protesters amongst us, persons whose protestations arouse and sometimes activate a considerable number of concerned Americans—William H. Whyte, Jr., David Riesman, Walter Lippmann, Norman Cousins, and more.

Professor Richard LaPiere, too, is a protestant, one with a wide perspective. He has come at life through varied interests and commitments, vocational and academic. Currently he is trying "to formulate a theory of social change and this book is the first product of this endeavor." He protests the largely unwitting supplanting in American culture of The Protestant Ethic by The Freudian Ethic, making it clear, however, that any "ethic is socially valid only to the extent that man through his conduct makes it so." At some length he contrasts the views of man inherent in the two ethics—on the one hand, "the man of enterprise" of The Protestant Ethic, self-confident that through reason, integrity, industry, initiative, and faith in God he can bring into being the perfect social order, and, on the other hand, the delicate, womb-yearning individual of The Freudian Ethic, lacking self-reliance, at odds with "pathological society" from birth to death, chafing under its restraints, socially irresponsible, needing to be constantly nourished with love and pampered through such consideration as condones his offenses, delinquencies, and crimes, no matter what his age or status.

The author cites examples of the subverting of American character through the hospitality of American professional and semi-professional individuals to The Freudian Ethic. The home is becoming "permissive." Increasingly the schools are "progressive"—though not "progressive" in ways recognizable as related to the teachings of John Dewey. More and more public conduct gets passively conformative, that is to say, merely "adjustive" for security's sake. Criminological theory and practice accept more often the "condoning" of irresponsible, delinquent, or criminal acts. The now-emerging middle class, "The New Bourgeoisie," lacking in enterprise, drifts into the easiest way, "living it up" day by day but also "living on futures" assumed to be more certain than they are.

"It is the thesis of this study," writes the author, "that many of the changes that have been of late years occurring in our society are malfunctional and that they will, if they continue uncorrected, constitute our unrecognized road to disaster. A modern industrial society



constantly changes the conditions on which it thrives and in order to survive must be dynamic technologically, organizationally, and otherwise. . . . [To this end] we must produce and give scope to a steadily increasing proportion of men of enterprise" who can continue wisely and appropriately such evolution of our society as is requisite to its survival, even though, at this moment in time, it is "the most fruitful that man has ever known." This declaration removes Professor LaPiere from the list of those serious prophets who see only major disaster ahead, either the blowing of ourselves into extinction or the securing of peace and survival at the cost of forgoing everything that makes life worth living. Failure to solve our major problems can come only if and when we give up trying. His call is for men of enterprise.

It is certainly true that among current conditions there are all too many that support Professor LaPiere's analysis and protests. It is equally true that all Americans, and particularly those who are educating future leaders, need to become specifically aware of what is happening to our American ethic. This book not only makes a considerable contribution here but cites many references that enlighten. Furthermore, 'men of enterprise' are a must. This reviewer feels, however, that there is another element even more surely indispensable than the increase of human enterprise. The talisman is an increase in inner soundness and caliber through an intentional interiorizing of a working system of values in which *humanity* is the dominant value, the attitude of the past when America was more true to herself. Enterprise can be either constructive or damaging—as our past history proves.

Values cannot be directly taught, of course. They have to be tellingly experienced by the learner—a visceral conviction. Neither can a system of values be developed by the learner as a class assignment. But understanding educators can provide conditions in which the learners encounter values and 'disvalues' in situations that challenge them without overwhelming them. It has been done. Much of the required social set-up is ready.

## Schizoposium on Schizophrenia

Alfred Auerback (Ed.)

*Schizophrenia: An Integrated Approach.* New York: Ronald Press, 1959. Pp. viii + 224. \$5.50.

Reviewed by ZANWIL SPERBER

*who is Coordinator of the Cerebral Palsy Research Project for the Children's Hospital of Philadelphia. The research is part of the National Collaborative Project for studying the etiology of cerebral palsy. Sperber has been interested in schizophrenia ever since as a psychiatric aide ten years ago he encountered a schizophrenic in a neuropsychiatric hospital. At the University of California at Los Angeles he was concerning himself with interpersonal communication between patient and therapist. Now he is studying intercommunication between researcher and mothers and between mothers and babies.*

THE dramatically and pathetically distorted patterns of behavior characteristic of schizophrenic patients and the widespread incidence and persistence of these patterns have continued to defy theoretical explanation and curative attempts. At the 1958 Hawaiian Divisional meeting of the American Psychiatric Association a symposium was devoted to the understanding of schizophrenia. Nine chapters, two by anthropologists, the others by psychiatrists, compose this volume of papers contributed then and edited now by Dr. Auerback, Assistant Clinical Professor of Psychiatry at the University of California Medical School. Ranging from reports of neurophysiological studies of animal behavior to analyses of interpersonal relationships in families of schizophrenics, the material presented includes statements about current somatherapeutic and psychotherapeutic approaches to treatment.

Diversity is necessarily a precondition of integration, but integration also requires linkage between the elements of

knowledge, or between the theoretical statements associated with different scientific approaches. Despite this volume's subtitle, its authors rarely attempt to relate their presentations either to what is generally known about schizophrenia as a describable clinical phenomenon or to the material presented by other symposiasts.

Dr. F. G. Worden describes Russian neurophysiological research which shows how internal stimuli inhibit responses to external stimuli to which the organism had previously reacted. He does not discuss these findings either in relation to psychological studies which show that, when the schizophrenic's level of attention to external stimuli is maintained, his performance level equals or approaches that of normal subjects (David Shakow, 1950; Norman Garnezy, 1952), or with reference to the distracted, preoccupied, ruminative behavior so prominent in the phenomenology of schizophrenia and possibly also a function of a focus on internal stimuli. There is an absence of all but the most general cross-chapter comment in the papers of the two anthropologists, Mr. Gregory Bateson and Dr. R. L. Birdwhistell, despite their shared interest in the role of interpersonal communication variables in psychopathological etiology.

MR. BATESON's discussion of the "double bind" concept, central to the theoretical approach to schizophrenia being developed at the Palo Alto Veterans' Hospital, makes for very exciting reading. The person caught in a 'double bind' is urgently pressured to respond by inconsistent forces, although the responses demanded are incompatible with each other. This conceptualization seems to capture adequately the situation of overwhelming frustration which characterizes the onset of reactive schizophrenia, although its explanatory value for chronic (process) schizophrenia is less clear. In illustrating the double bind, Bateson has usually referred to the *sequential* inconsistency of communication directed at the schizophrenic by important figures in his life; e.g., his mother verbally encourages him to be honest in his expressions of feelings and later rejects his feelings when they are critical of her. The protocol of family

therapy which richly illustrates Dr. Murray Bowen's chapter on *Family Relationships in Schizophrenia* provides many samples of interactions which support Bateson's theorizing about the importance of the double bind.

Dr. Birdwhistell's overview of his linguistic-kinesic system for analysis of communication, while not presented in sufficiently concrete form to give readers a picture of either the notation system or the technical problems involved in using his approach, suggests to this reviewer an immediate application to the study of double-bind pressures resulting from the *simultaneous* transmission of inconsistent messages through different transmission channels. In a culture where language is conceived to be exclusively verbal, the gestural message, emitted unconsciously and perceived peripherally, will be closer to the basic emotions of both transmitter and receiver. Inconsistencies thus mediated may have an especially devastating effect on the individual. Whether or not future research supports this speculation, it would seem that integration of ideas in social science as it studies schizophrenia will involve tests of Bateson's double-bind hypothesis, using Birdwhistell's linguistic-kinesic techniques.

Psychoanalytic theory attempts to comprehend normal and pathological functioning in terms of psychological developmental concepts that relate adult outcomes to those determining forces that originate in the child's earliest experiences (Otto Fenichel, 1945). Considering the years of important clinical work with autistic and schizophrenic children by Laurette Bender, L. Kanner, R. Spitz, and others, and the impact of psychoanalysis on psychiatric thinking, the restriction of the symposium's focus to adult schizophrenia is both surprising and unfortunate.

Virtual disregard of the problem of schizophrenic thinking is also a deficit in the present volume. The personalized ideation of the schizophrenic appears to be a central characteristic of the illness—either signifying the patient's need for a defensive retreat from the dangers of interpersonal communication, or an inability to make contact despite efforts to communicate. In effect, the schizophrenic's unique conceptual style

makes him unable to communicate, thus isolating him from sources of interpersonal and psychotherapeutic support. It would follow that continued, vigorous efforts to comprehend what and how the schizophrenic thinks are in order if more appropriate therapeutic procedures are ever to make the concept of the unreachable patient obsolete.

The omission of some important areas, and the absence of an attempt to interrelate most of the areas covered in the symposium, should not obscure its value as a stimulus to integrated thinking about schizophrenia.

## The Psychoactive Drugs

Seymour Fisher (Ed.)

*Child Research in Psychopharmacology*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1959. Pp. xvi + 216. \$6.50.

Reviewed by RALPH K. MEISTER

*who is Director of the Child Guidance Clinic at Mooseheart, Illinois, where he has been working with children for the past twenty-one years.*

THIS volume presents the papers and discussion of a one-day Washington conference sponsored by the Psychopharmacology Service Center of the National Institute of Mental Health to exchange views on problems and stimulate interest in them, and examine methodology and promising directions of research in the field of child psychopharmacology. Seymour Fisher, Research Psychologist at the sponsoring agency, who both organized the conference and edited the report, had in mind an emphasis on "what we need to learn rather than what we already know" about the psychopharmacological agents. The editor's purpose is nicely achieved in this book for the papers, representing a variety of disciplines and a catholicity of viewpoints, give a wide-ranging sample of recent thinking in this area.

The participants searched their souls in

respect of the ethical considerations in using drugs with children. They worried, not merely about the side effects but also about possible, as yet unknown, irreversible developments. They considered techniques for the better measurement or assessment of the effects of drugs and, in the absence of any substantial theory, considered categories for conceptualizing results and posing further questions. There was even a sharp discussion of the Arrowsmith Dilemma (presumptive clinical usefulness vs. rigor of research design). For the experimental psychologist's special interest, drugs were considered not merely from the standpoint of studying and establishing their clinical usefulness in psychiatric and pediatric practice, but also from the standpoint of the methodological advantages that drugs can contribute to the psychological armamentarium as another kind of experimental condition, another mode of experimental intra-organismic intervention.

The quality of the contributions varied. Impression: Some had something to say, others had to say something. The session was avowedly an "experimental venture into group dynamics." The roster of contributors seems to reflect the geographical exigencies of an expeditious assembly rather than a representative coverage of research centers or of researchers in this field. Of twenty-one, twelve were from Washington and environs, seven from the east coast, one from just west of the Alleghenies (Rochester) and only one west of the Mississippi (Iowa). There is, one would assume, no such hiatus in interest between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi nor such a desert of disregard west to the Pacific.

For the psychologist whose sophistication in this area esteems the correct spelling of a drug name as a minor triumph and its correct pronunciation a major one, there is a helpful synoptic review of the psychoactive drugs—and a useful reference list (limited to English language publications and including summaries of results where the studies are specifically and directly concerned with children). Taken together, these two comprise a good 'starter kit.' Another commendable feature: The publisher agreed that in lieu of royalty pay-

ments (which were waived by the contributors) the retail price of the volume would be reduced.

For researchers as enterprising as Dr. Fisher and as gifted and diligent in organization, researchers whose fields would benefit from a quick overview of problems and methods and an exchange of current points of view, this volume sets a good example, and its reporting is relatively up to the minute (relative as

compared with the publication lag in the journals: Conference 10-27-58, publication 8-21-59).

For the reader interested in current problems and points of view in this promising and provocative field (whether you call it *psychopharmacology* or *pharmacopsychology*), this is a good place to go to get some representative recent thinking.

## Who Am I?— the Social Answer

Anselm L. Strauss

*Mirrors and Masks: The Search for Identity.* Gencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1959. Pp. 186. \$4.00.

Reviewed by JOSEPH ADELSON

*Dr. Adelson is Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Michigan. He teaches courses in psychotherapy and personality theory and is interested in the application of clinical insights to social-psychological problems—like creativity and social mobility. With Elizabeth Douvan he is right now writing a book about adolescence.*

AN interesting book, and a hard one to review. It is, of all things, an essay, a genre almost unused in contemporary social science. Strauss adopts the essay form to allow himself suppleness and flexibility. It is his license to wander intellectually, to speculate, suggest, propose. We do not have here a position carefully stated and argued; we have a play of variations on a theme, the theme of identity as it emerges in social interaction. Strauss touches on so wide a range of problems and possibilities as to make his book very difficult to capture in summary. Furthermore, it is an uneven book, so much so that we cannot establish a single attitude toward it: it is over-written and under-written, tedious and sparkling, commonplace and highly original.

The book is about identity, although not in the sense that someone like Erik Erikson uses the term. Strauss makes it clear that he is uninterested here in per-

sonality as a structure. He means by identity the (often transient) states of self-definition produced in social interaction. "Identity," he says, "is connected with the fateful appraisals made of oneself—by oneself and others. Everyone presents himself to the others and to himself, and sees himself in the mirrors of their judgments." The quotation tells us that Strauss is writing in that tradition of social psychology derived from the work of G. H. Mead and developed, largely, by sociologists at the University of Chicago. His intention is to join this point of view—he calls it "the symbolic interaction approach"—to an emphasis on social organization. His ultimate aim is to develop a fresh and viable social psychology. He feels that existing approaches in social psychology—stemming as they do from learning theory or clinical work—do not really serve the sociologist: they do not give enough attention to the symbolic character of interaction, nor do they stress sufficiently the influence of social institutions on individual behavior.

THE book gets under way very slowly, enough so to discourage even an eager reader. The first two chapters and most of the third are given over to setting the stage conceptually. It suggests that

language is central to identity; in naming, we implicitly classify and evaluate; our terminologies guide (and sometimes limit) our conduct. As we act, we constantly appraise and re-appraise ourselves and others. New conditions may appear (e.g., unfulfilled expectations, or unexpected reactions from others) which may force us to develop new terminologies, through which we re-name and thus re-evaluate ourselves and our worlds. There is not much new or controversial here, though Strauss seems to feel otherwise; at any rate, his discussion is laborious and distended, and we feel: "Yes, yes; let's get on with it."

He does. The fourth and fifth chapters—on identity transformation, and on continuity and change—are the heart of the book. We are given a cascade of insights, for the most part novel, provocative, and brilliant. Strauss treats of the strategies and consequences of interaction. Interaction is usually complex, sometimes infinitely so, and uncertain, sometimes perilously so; it is a game in which we assert identity claims and in which we risk identity loss and change. Strauss turns his and our attention here and there, covering an extraordinary range of topics: status-forcing (how we assign status to others in the course of interaction and have it assigned to ourselves); the tactics we employ in controlling the flow and direction of interaction; turning points (the decisive situations and processes through which identity is transformed); the institutional control of status-passage;



ANSELM L. STRAUSS

coaching (the teaching of identity-change); how identity change is minimized; the sense of personal continuity. It is all wonderfully original and stimulating; the only complaint might be that Strauss moves too hurriedly from one insight to the next, and too much is left half-developed. The last chapter, on group membership and history, contains some interesting ideas, but as a whole it is sketchy and programmatic.

**T**HE book has its moot points, inevitably—given Strauss's determination to climb out on every limb within sight. Let me mention those which will concern the psychologist. Strauss has an uneasy attitude toward motivation and personality theory; he wants to make do without the first and to ignore the second. His reasons (too complex to go into here) are intelligently stated but are not in the end persuasive. He is constantly meeting questions of motivation—the very theme of the book demands that he do—but either he side-steps them, quite needlessly, or else he introduces motivational assumptions tacitly. His decision not to use the conceptual resources of psychology—a common but perplexing choice in Meadian social psychology—often leads him into a curious flatness and asymmetry of discussion: he will sometimes abandon a topic just when we feel he ought to begin exploring it.

But the real trouble with the book, I felt, is that Strauss does not know his own strengths or, knowing them, does not trust them enough. He has a rare and precious talent for noting and making sense of what goes on in social interaction; he sees freshly, and beyond the common perception. The inspiring, informing parts of his book are those in which he allows this gift to be used freely. But his writing is spoiled, at times badly, by his fretting, defensive preoccupation with Theory. He does not set out to build a theory, yet he seems to feel that he ought to, and he worries the question relentlessly. He wants to believe, and wants us to believe, that his sharp and original observations are the outcome of theory. They are not; they are the outcome of an active intelligence and an uncommon sensibility. Actually his 'theory'—better, his point

of view—does play a role, in providing an object and focus of study, and a fairly loose yet seminal set of categories for making observations on it. That is all it does, and isn't that more than enough? Do we really need one more System to torment our graduate students with? Meadian social psychology needs neither the embellishment nor the armor-plating of System. Its practitioners are already doing some of the most exciting social science of our time

—witness the writings of Everett Hughes and Erving Goffman, and for that matter the middle section of this book.

Despite its faults, Strauss's book is admirable, admirable for its courage, its outbreaks of imagination, its willingness to take chances and to risk being wrong. One is constantly reminded, while reading it, of the comparative listlessness and timidity of our own social psychology. Technique-proud and idea-poor, we still go our dull, cautious, solemn way.

## Is Psychoanalysis Scientific?

Sidney Hook (Ed.)

*Psychoanalysis, Scientific Method, and Philosophy.* New York: New York University Press, 1959. Pp. xiv + 370. \$5.00.

Reviewed by PAUL McREYNOLDS

*Dr. McReynolds is Chief for Research in the Psychology Services of the Veterans Administration Hospital in Palo Alto, California. He is also Consulting Associate Professor of Psychology at Stanford University. He is more concerned with research than therapy and is primarily interested in theory of personality and motivation. That one still talks about Freudian psychoanalysis as something special indicates, he thinks, that psychoanalysis is not yet science. It will be when Freud has become only an historical event in the history of the science of personality.*

**T**HIS book presents the proceedings of a symposium, sponsored by New York University, on the scientific status of psychoanalysis. The participants in the symposium consisted in the main of eminent psychoanalysts and philosophers of science, and the aim of the meeting was to provide for a free, critical interchange of views between representatives of these two groups on the current status of psychoanalysis as scientific theory.

Ever since G. Stanley Hall invited Freud to lecture at Clark University—about half a century ago—psychoanalysis has been something of a problem for scientists. The problem has been whether to consider psychoanalysis as mainly

fact or mainly fancy, as science or mythology—or perhaps as somewhere in between these two. That this question is still an issue, some 60 years after the publication of *Die Traumdeutung*—the basic book in psychoanalysis—is a tribute both to the persisting significance of the questions with which psychoanalysis deals and to the failure of psychoanalytic theorists to arrive at formulations wholly convincing, or even—in some instances—meaningful to the scientific community.

The idea of a conference of psychoanalytic theorists and experts in theory construction was therefore a good one, and in book form the symposium provides interesting—even, at times, exciting—reading.

The book was edited by Sidney Hook, Professor of Philosophy at New York University, who contributes both an introduction and a stimulating paper. Altogether there are 28 different contributors, whose presentations range from less than a page to 35 pages. There is considerable variation in the quality of the papers, and quite a bit of repetition of similar points. On at least three occasions I found an author referring to some comment which presumably had been made previously at the symposium, but which I could not find in the text.



There is, of course, not space here to evaluate each of the papers, but let me call attention to the first two, which are especially outstanding. They are by Heinz Hartman, who is one of the leading contemporary Freudian theorists, particularly in the area of ego psychology, and Ernest Nagel, who is John Dewey Professor of Philosophy at Columbia. Hartman presents a thoughtful but necessarily brief survey of Freudian theory; he grants that at present this structure is at a "comparatively low level of systematization" (p. 5), but defends the essential meaningfulness of the major Freudian constructs. Nagel, on the other hand, argues that "the theory is stated in language so vague and metaphorical that almost anything appears to be compatible with it" (p. 41).

To some extent the book takes the form of an attack by the philosophers on the scientific legitimacy of psychoanalysis, and a defense by the analysts; but there are exceptions to this pattern. The analysts for the most part are quite modest in their claims, and several of the philosophers appear to be more defensive of Freudian theory than are the Freudians. Indeed, one of the philosophers, Morris Lazerowitz, proposes that philosophizing is merely an outlet for unconscious and repressed fantasies, and that psychoanalysis "alone can discover for us what they [philosophers] really say, as against what they delusively appear to say" (p. 153). While this counterattack on the validity of philosophical, as opposed to psychoanalytic endeavors, apparently enlivened the conference considerably, it was essentially tangential and was supported by only the flimsiest of evidence. It is unfortunate, therefore, that a considerable portion of the conference discussion was devoted to this matter.

ONE of the questions which comes up repeatedly in the book is the extent to which the validity of psychoanalytic theory can be evaluated by whether or not psychoanalytic treatment cures patients. Hartman tends to minimize the appropriateness of this criterion, whereas Nagel, Hook, and Michael Scriven believe it to be pertinent and important. The answer, I believe, is this: the therapeutic effectiveness of psychoanalysis is

a proper criterion for the psychoanalytic theory of therapy, but not for the psychoanalytic theory of personality. Psychoanalysis is not a single theory, but many theories. The primary reason why the outcome of psychoanalytic treatment is neither a crucial nor an appropriate test of general psychoanalytic theory—a reason not considered by the philosophers and which the analysts did not point out—is that the techniques of psychoanalytic therapy are not uniquely and rigorously derivable from general psychoanalytic theory. Therefore, it is conceivable that the psychoanalytic theory of personality can be valid, and psychoanalytic therapy still be of lim-



SIDNEY HOOK

ited usefulness: Freud himself appears to have been inclined toward this view. Conversely, it is conceivable that the psychoanalytic theory of personality is primarily myth, and psychoanalytic therapy nevertheless beneficial. The experiment which Scriven proposes for the preliminary testing of psychoanalytic theory by the testing of psychoanalytic therapy is thus beside the point. Scriven is an outstanding philosopher of science, and the technical details of his design are acceptable, but his paper suffers seriously from the fact that he makes no attempt whatever to relate his proposal to the vast amount of research (e.g., by Carl Rogers and associates) which has been and is being done by psychologists on the process of psychotherapy.

Another issue running through the book concerns the appropriateness of clinical observations collected by analysts during psychotherapeutic sessions as scientific evidence. This is a very important matter, since as Hartman points out, "the greater part of evidence for the psychoanalytic propositions still lies with this work" (p. 32). At issue in particular is the question of prediction. Thus, the continuity of the therapeutic situation affords the analyst an opportunity to test his interpretations against subsequent material, and to check up on predictions as to how a case will develop. One of the analysts, Jacob Arlow, states directly that "the frequency and specificity of predictions is far beyond chance relationship" (206), and that there are "predictions that have been validated regularly, hundreds of times in psychoanalytic investigations" (207). Arlow gives no references, however, to support these statements and one can only conclude that they are based on his clinical judgment rather than on experimental findings.

THERE can be no doubt, I think, but that psychoanalytic theorists, particularly those of the orthodox Freudian variety, have been extremely slow in seriously attempting to confront their propositions with the kinds of tests which other disciplines aspiring to scientific stature would consider minimal. This is true in spite of the fact that Freudian theorists have been extremely inventive in the formation of hypotheses. There is nothing wrong with clinical evidence per se, but it must be dealt with in accordance with accepted standards of scientific method. Thus systematic records of predictions must be maintained, in order that statistical accountings may be made of negative as well as of positive cases. That practicing psychoanalysts can make accurate predictions about their patients is probably true, but as Charles Frankel points out, "the question is whether they can make predictions which others who do not hold these theories cannot make, and whether these predictions follow logically from the theories in question" (p. 327). It is amazing to me that many psychoanalytic investigators, who have done so much to call attention to the

influence of needs and wishes on perception, nevertheless feel no urgency about the use of techniques which would take themselves off the spot of being the private judges of the validity of hypotheses which they themselves propose. In the present volume, Lawrence Kubie is a refreshing and commendable exception to this generality.

It should be pointed out that *psychoanalysis* and *Freudian theory* are terms used synonymously in this book. No attention is given to such neo-Freudians as Sullivan and Horney. With regard to Freudian theory, I had the feeling that most of the philosopher participants were not really very knowledgeable, and that this deficiency hindered any rigorous consideration of specific Freudian concepts. Most of the book is on a rather global level, and serious consid-

eration of such matters as the libido theory, the psychosexual theory, and the like is not even attempted. The symposium would have profited considerably by having had at least one long paper by a scientist authoritatively familiar with Freudian theory and yet not identified with it. Further, it could have benefited by having had a greater representation of psychoanalysts: by far the greater number of participants were philosophers.

Despite its limitations, this book is an important and immensely readable contribution to the literature on Freudian theory. Of course, it does not settle the question of the scientific status of the Freudian system, but certainly its influence will help to make that system less mythological and more scientific.

the range of neurotic disturbances and character disorders. Most of the child patients were boys. The average number of treatment sessions was between 20 and 30—with mother and child treated concurrently and lesser attention paid to the father. While the therapy staff comprised one senior child psychiatrist, eight Fellows in Child Psychiatry, and six social workers, the book deals primarily with the treatment conducted by the social workers, three of whom had considerable professional experience, the remaining three having relatively little (one year or less). The theoretical orientation was mainly psychoanalytic.

The study is focused upon the analysis of *verbal* descriptions of interpersonal experience, obtained from therapists, parents, and children. Somewhat arbitrarily the third, sixteenth, and thirtieth interviews were chosen as samples of the early, middle, and terminal phases of the treatment. The analysis of the data gathered during one year required another four years. Indeed, a test of the researcher's endurance!

**W**HAT changes take place? Can the changes be anticipated by the therapist? How do the patients perceive the therapist? To what extent do descriptions of the problem by different members of the family coincide? How do the mutual expectations of patients and therapists influence the course of therapy? Are the prognostic expectations of the therapist borne out? Is there a difference between experienced and inexperienced therapists in this regard? These are but a few of the questions to which this book addresses itself.

One wonders about the methods which are to support this ambitious undertaking. In this respect, the author has hitched her wagon to a modification of the "circle" of interpersonal experience developed by Freedman, Leary, Ossorio, and Coffey. The quadrants (labeled negative-active, negative-passive, positive-active, positive-passive) are represented by a 60-item forced-choice card sort (examples: she controls people, she advises, she gives to others). From this sorting of cards derive most of the measures, such as the patient's self-descriptions, the ratings of the therapist, the predictions by the therapist, and so on. Verbal statements from semi-structured in-

## Therapy for Thirty-four Families

Erika Chance

*Families in Treatment: From the Viewpoint of the Patient, the Clinician and the Researcher.* New York: Basic Books, 1959. Pp. xviii + 234. \$5.50.

Reviewed by HANS H. STRUPP

*Dr. Strupp is Director of Psychological Services in the Department of Psychiatry in the University of North Carolina and Associate Professor of Psychology in its Departments of Psychiatry and Psychology. He is a clinical psychologist who believes in controlled experimental research.*

**S**INCE the researcher in psychotherapy is forced to steer a dangerous course between the Scylla of protean psychic processes and the Charybdis of static quantifications, it is small wonder that many persons decide that there are easier ways of earning a living or gaining fame and turn to potentially more rewarding pursuits. Nevertheless a smaller but increasing group of adventurers became fascinated by the intriguing dynamics of emotional conflicts and the strategies leading to their resolution, and are spurred on, moreover, by the conviction that the scientific method is—or should be—a useful ally in the

quest for greater knowledge and understanding. Dr. Erika Chance, a European-born and European-trained psychologist, currently a research associate at Mt. Zion Hospital in San Francisco, is a courageous member of this group, as evidenced by this painstaking, competent, and interesting study, whose inevitable shortcomings are due only to the staggering difficulties of the task, the rudimentary state of present-day methods, and the absence of an ideal research setting—not to any lack of ingenuity, clinical acumen, devotion, or research skill.

*Families in Treatment* is based on data collected from 34 families who were seen in therapy at the Child Study Center at the Institute of the Pennsylvania Hospital in Philadelphia, apparently a fairly typical child-guidance clinic. The families in the sample were mostly members of the middle-income group, professional, and predominantly Jewish. The children's problems covered

interviews are quantified in terms of a content-analysis scheme which is also based on the "circle." To be asked to describe oneself and one's therapist by sorting cards at various points in the therapy is not a very meaningful task to the average patient, but it can be linked to his treatment which is so important to him that he complies. Similarly, therapists are not usually called upon to guess how a patient will describe himself in terms of a card sort at present or at some future date. In this study the therapists grumbled but acquiesced. Significantly, the author herself cannot refrain from referring to her principal experimental procedure as a "strait-jacket." One must conclude that all participants, at least intuitively, had reservations about the relevance (validity?) of the task.

In due course the measures are run through the statistical wringer: quadrant scores are added, weighted by intensity, ratings compared and correlated, differences tested, etc. If it is remembered that the original measures derive from rather simple, low-inference, adjectival descriptions, one begins to wonder to what extent some of the fairly fancy statistical manipulations are a bootstrap effect by which 'refinement' is achieved in the analysis stage. Too, this reviewer questions the justification of interpreting statistical relationships as signifying "denial," "conflict," "defenses," "interdependence of family concerns," "accuracy of prediction," and the like. In this connection, one thinks of Cronbach's well-known injunctions about statistical artifacts in the popular 'operational' sorts, as well as Holt's critical analysis (*J. abnorm. soc. Psychol.*, 1958, 56, 1-12) of the predictive process. For example, what intervening variables does the therapist consider when he predicts how the patient will rate herself on a card sort three months hence? I submit that the criterion is largely an unknown. The author is aware of the limitations of her design, and the skillful interweaving of clinical illustrations with the statistical findings considerably strengthens her argument; however, some of the congruence may be more apparent than real.

Among the many stimulating findings one should mention that patients of experienced therapists showed a marked decline in their concern with passive roles, whereas the patients of inexperienced social workers tended to remain unchanged. Inexperienced therapists early in treatment were more optimistic about the prognosis than their

experienced colleagues, but in the long run the opposite held true. Therapists tended to be described by their patients in terms of cultural expectations, and indeed the observed changes in patients' self-descriptions were in similar directions. Here the heavy reliance on verbal reports, and more particularly upon results yielded by a single card sort, appear to have been a serious limitation. Clearly, psychotherapeutic change and the process of change eventually must be documented by techniques other than adjectives to which the patient subscribes or which he rates as inapplicable.

For sheer persistence in an arduous and prolonged research task, apparently conducted almost singlehandedly, the author deserves high praise. Apart from the studies of Rogers and those affiliated with him, there are as yet precious few investigations in which patients and therapists were followed over an extended period of time. Many more are needed, and each will contribute toward sharpening our thinking and our research strategies. The terms *psychotherapy*, *psychotherapist*, and *therapeutic change* still mean many things to different people. It is my belief that in the long run controlled research cannot fail to refine the concepts and operations, thus placing the therapeutic enterprise on a sounder footing and making it less vulnerable to attack from its skeptical opponents.



ERIKA CHANCE

## Status in the Carafe

Vance Packard

*The Status Seekers: An Exploration of Class Behavior in America and the Hidden Barriers that Affect You, Your Community, Your Future.* New York: David McKay, 1959. Pp. viii + 376. \$4.50.

Reviewed by FRED L. STRODTBECK

who is Associate Professor of Social Psychology at the University of Chicago but just now at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences. He has written on Social Status in *Jury Deliberations*, published a book titled *Talent and Society* (Van Nostrand, 1959), and is now using his time at the Center to prepare for publication his five-year investigation of decision-making by juries.

By the time this review appears, Americans should still be purchasing *The Status Seekers* at the rate of more than 2000 copies per week. One immediately doubts that such a popular book could carry an intrinsic message for the scientific reader, but the response to the book itself is certainly deserving of note.

This is not an academic book. It begins with an opening chapter which is frankly alarmist. Class lines are hardening and status-straining has intensified. The reader is encouraged to deduce that he will be able to climb higher with less strain if he becomes better informed. Persons who are already helplessly blocked in their status climb or who have neared the top may not be interested, but this still leaves a considerable population which in prior generations has made best-sellers of Dale Carnegie's *How to Win Friends and Influence People* and similar volumes.

The author, a successful journalist, who lists with apparent pride his status as an associate member of the American Sociological Society, takes his readers firmly in hand. He is not overly technical; he tells them about the pecking order of animals and the status lev-

els in bureaucracies with the same easy prose. Within the first 40 pages he gives them a two-dimensional class system. The first dimension (relating to wealth, job, education, and style of life) is

#### THE DIPLOMATIC ELITE

- I. The Real Upper Class
- II. The Semi-Upper Class

#### THE SUPPORTING CLASSES

- III. The Limited-Service Class
- IV. The Working Class
- V. The Real Lower Class

and the second dimension is the further subdivision into ethnic and religious sub-groupings. He sees the status structure as a jungle-gym—not as a ladder.

The author includes passing reference to an impressive proportion of the recent stratification studies. But just as the then-young popularizer, Stuart Chase, overlooked Carnap and did poorly with the premises of logical positivism in his *Tyranny of Words*, so has Packard overlooked the comparative stratification literature and the premises of functionalism in *The Status Seekers*. He gives the reader many of the pieces which would make up an introductory course, but his organization of the pieces is almost misleading.

He rushes on to assume that lines of stratification are becoming more rigid while his academic contemporaries search for better ways to weigh the question. In fairness, one must admit that in later chapters Packard makes less of this assumption than he appears to promise at the outset, but it is this assumption that gives the volume a polemic bite. When Packard discusses executive furnishings, he stresses the importance of the water carafe. At another point he notes that men who have made at least \$10,000,000 work in modest cubicles. Yet, at no point does he wrestle with the greater need for status distinctions when status differences are, in fact, reduced.

Nor does it ever become clear to the reader how much the passing of the frontier or the conspiracy of the power élite contributes toward making status mobility more difficult. The author does, indeed, underline his belief that a college diploma is now more important as a gateway to later achievement than it was previously. Since it is well known that the status of one's family strongly

influences the chances of going to college, this opens up a plausible line of inference; but to protect such lines of inference one needs careful definitions and detailed statistics. The author lists six factors making for an open-class system and nine factors making for a closed system and does not suggest that judgment need be reserved on his intuitive weighting out of the balances.

It is particularly desirable to protect readers of a popular treatment from the disposition to generalize unwisely. The many Philadelphia and New England studies cited in this book are written about as if they should apply equally to Kansas and California. Fine recent work on Jewish inebriety is here oversimplified to a "fear in a hostile camp." The meaning of the recruitment of boxers from lower status is obliquely introduced in a comment of the area of the city from which they are recruited. The confused topic of spouse-dominance is resolved to indicate male dominance in the supporting classes and female dominance above. Packard's flavorful points are supported by reference to published articles, conversations with sociologists, or personal observations. Actually the materials abstracted from articles and presented without qualifications strike one as the least reliable of the three.

The author speaks up in the tradition of Nancy Mitford's *Noblesse Oblige* to tell status seekers to say *sofa* instead of *davenport* and *dinner jacket* instead of *tuxedo*. Even psychologists will be interested to learn that when sitting down one can reveal "lower white-collar origins" by pulling up his trousers to preserve the crease (p. 135). Such observations are good fun, and the status implications of acknowledging an introduction with 'Pleased to meet cha' can scarcely be denied, but an author does a disservice if he fails, as Packard does, to raise the question of *why*. He gives no explanation of why many class-defined behaviors are not relinquished in the face of evidence that they define lower status.

In short, what we buy and the manners we use are related to who we are and who we want to be. Norms of behavior grow in face-to-face relations and

rank in one's group is related to the conformity to these norms. A purchase appropriate for status seeking may be inappropriate for the maintenance of rank with the 10 or 12 persons one sees every day. Until this story, in its full complexity, is properly told—or preferably, properly taught in our high schools—the popular understanding of status-seeking will remain below what this reviewer believes adolescents of all ages require if they are to shape and enjoy their lives in our democratic society.

## How the Body Grows

Leona M. Bayer and Nancy Bayley

*Growth Diagnosis: Selected Methods for Interpreting and Predicting Physical Development from One Year to Maturity.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959. Pp. xiv + 241. \$10.00.

Reviewed by EDWARD E. HUNT, JR.

who is a Lecturer on Anthropology at Harvard University and an Associate in Anthropology in Forsyth Dental Infirmary in Boston. He is a physical anthropologist, who has worked in the Caroline Islands, Australia, and Tasmania, being especially interested in the development of the head and resemblances among kinsmen.

THIS handsome volume is the work of two justly respected authorities on the physical development of children. It defines a battery of somatic measurements and ratings which require some technical skill and equipment for radiography, anthropometry, and full-length photography in the nude. Norms for each variate are presented which apply best to American white children of North European ancestry who have been reared under conditions favoring early and rapid growth. In order to carry out the entire program on a child, an investigator would need both the present volume and the second edition



of the *Radiographic Atlas of Skeletal Maturation (Hand)* by Greulich and Pyle. Anyone with a really broad interest in child development would do well to have both books within easy reach.

From these volumes, an investigator can detect deviations of size and body breadth, unusual lengths of limbs, the appropriateness of a child's physique to his sex and age, and his progress in skeletal and genital maturation. He would not have a measure of maturity in terms of teeth present in the mouth or other features of the head, and could only indirectly observe caloric balance in terms of thickness of the subcutaneous adipose layer. It would have been well to have added a chapter on norms of caloric and protein intake for boys and girls of different ages, so that the investigator could transform the evidence of dietary questionnaires into evaluations of how efficiently a child transforms pabulum into protoplasm.

The crucial question is, however, this: Is the entire battery of practical use to a psychologist? Simon (*Child Developm.*, 30, 493-512) has pointed out that either singly or in combination, somatic measures of development usually show correlations of about +0.10 to +0.30 with scores on mental tests. Unless the psychologist is far more interested in psychosomatic biology than most workers are today, why should he install the equipment and train the staff to carry out the Bayer-Bayley routines?

In my opinion, parts of the battery can act as a modest corrective against the excessive 'mentalism' of a psychologist, but the entire procedure is too much to ask of him—at least, on his own. He may record stature and weight, and perhaps learn to count and classify teeth, but probably more important are the skill to evaluate outward facial maturity relative to age and being on the lookout for such things as excessive breast development in a pubescent boy. In other words, the relevance of somatic data to the psychologist might be to define a child's size, strength, and vitality alongside his peers, his 'body image' and attitudes toward his developmental assets and liabilities, his adiposity and sexual maturation. Although the correction of physical deformities is not the psychologist's province, he

should, nevertheless, be aware of such characteristics in his subjects and patients. In other words, somatic data often help the psychologist in encouraging his young clients to make successful transitions from one period of life to the next.

## Psychotherapy— Psychiatry

Marvin Reznikoff and Laura C. Toomey

*Evaluation of Changes Associated with Psychiatric Treatment.* Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1959. Pp. xiv + 132. \$4.50.

Reviewed by IVAN N. MENSCH

*who is Professor of Medical Psychology in the School of Medicine at the University of California at Los Angeles and Head of its Division of Medical Psychology. He wishes the public would understand that psychotherapy is not the whole of psychiatry's armament.*

IN the training of advanced students of psychiatry, psychology, social work, and sociology for careers in the field of mental health, faculty members often have the goal—and the chore—of indicating clearly that psychiatric treatment does not consist solely of psychotherapy. At first glance—and this impression is reinforced by the title's wording—the text of Reznikoff and Toomey suggests that it is a review of psychiatric therapies. The authors treat, however, only the 'psychological therapies'; they do not include the somatic therapies. Thus, the important discrimination of psychotherapy from other forms of psychiatric treatment does not appear, and this in spite of the history of surgical procedures, the history and continuing use of the shock therapies, and the current avalanche of tranquilizers, energizers, and antidepressant drugs (even the United States Congress has become exercised about these drugs!).

One of the contributions of psychol-

ogy to psychotherapy arises from the sophistication of psychologists in research and their facility as social scientists, in communication. Yet this text fails to communicate the distinction between psychotherapy and other forms of psychiatric treatment. It is ironic to read early in the text (p. 6), in contrast with the urgency that appears later when the authors press for scientific effort in evaluation of behavioral changes associated with psychologic treatment, that "ambiguous terminology and failure of communication . . . [are] practically the sole property of the social sciences." Perhaps the moral is that we should stay out of this game.

This failure in communication is, however, in part redeemed by the authors' clear definition of another parameter, their study of changes in the behavior of patients as associated with psychiatric treatment, specifically with psychotherapy, without regard to the outcome or the prediction of changes.

It is significant that the authors choose to discuss the "evaluation of changes associated with psychiatric treatment" rather than the changes "related to" treatment. In view of the present state of the art of psychotherapy as it struggles to be scientifically respectable, it is important to stress how much we depend for explanation of the psychotherapeutic process upon the association of variables, as they occur regularly or by chance.

THE acute concerns of the researcher in the field of psychotherapy, in his attempts to relate practice and theory, are reflected in the several ways and occasions in which these authors ask if clinical researchers may be like other scientists. The many divergent theories and methodologies in this area (*An Example: The Eysenck Controversy*) suggest to the writers that research in psychotherapy is different from the main stream of the sciences. They conclude that research is research ("pigs is pigs"), clinical or otherwise, if only we would be researchers enough and not too clinical.

The yearning to use physiological measures and information combined with psychological data, in order to

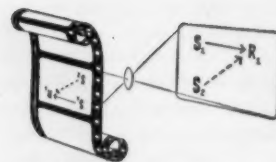
lend dignity and security to our studies of psychological behavior, appears on the dust cover before one even gets into the reading. The now-familiar uses of clinical judgments and psychological tests are joined not only with physiological measures but also with more recent trends in the content analysis of psychotherapeutic interviews and in studies of intraindividual variations. The solution to the problem of evaluation proposed by the authors is the marriage of scientific soundness "and clinically sophisticated research," a wish with a familiar ring. These words at the close essentially summarize what appears to be a primer for the unsophisticated clinician and researcher, student or practitioner—the *dos* and *don'ts* of research in psychotherapy.

The senior author's graduate training in psychology at New York University and his experience as statistician with the American Cancer Society, as clinical psychologist at the Neurological Institute in New York City, and at Yale before coming to the Institute of Living at Hartford as Director of Clinical Psychology, has afforded him a background of experience and motivation in relating research know-how to the clinical method. Miss Toomey, his co-author, interned at the Institute of Living in 1957–58 following a Veterans Administration traineeship and Public Health fellowship, is now a candidate for the PhD at the University of Connecticut and is continuing her training in clinical psychology.

How did this text come to be written? Originally it was planned as a review of the literature on investigations of changes in psychotherapy as indicated by psychological tests. This survey was to serve as background for the investigation of the association of psychological and biochemical variables in changes in behavior of patients in psychotherapy. The initial conception, frankly and honestly stated, then expanded into the text as published. Perhaps it is just this sort of development of an idea which is responsible for the impression that the text more appropriately could be the start of a book to be written in this area.

## INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA

Edited by A. A. Lumsdaine



### ABCs, BCAs and a Few XYZs

Philip Mannino

*ABC's of Audio-Visual Equipment and the School Projectionist's Manual.* (2nd ed.) State College, Pa.: M. O. Publishers. Pp. 80. \$1.50.

Reviewed by HARRIS H. SHETTEL

*Dr. Shettel's perspective for reviewing a manual on the use of audio-visual devices derives from extensive experience both in the utilization of such equipment and in the writing of job instructions and training materials. Shettel gained much of this background as a research psychologist in the Air Force Personnel and Training Research Center and, later, as Project Supervisor at the Perceptual Development Laboratories in St. Louis. He is currently a research scientist at the American Institute for Research, where he is primarily concerned with the development of self-instructional materials for teaching basic job knowledge to military personnel.*

simple reason that a lot of valuable psychological material is on film (witness the more than two hundred films reviewed here in the past) and, in addition, because films and related device-centered media are part of psychology's kit of tools and should be in our repertoire. There has been a good deal of interesting research done on films and with films, partly because they are widely used for teaching and training and we need to know more about their effectiveness, and partly because they make such a good research tool.

Most of us probably show some degree of left-handedness when confronted with a piece of projection or audio equipment. We may have general familiarity with the device, but there is still much we tend to forget (not to mention what we never learned) when we do not practice skills regularly. In such cases, a refresher job-aid manual would be called for—one that would contain threading diagrams, maintenance guides, etc.

There is also a good deal of basic reference material that even those who regularly and consistently use audio-visual equipment would not be likely to recall, but which should be available when needed. "What size screen would one need for a room 30 ft. long when using a 16-mm projector with a 2-in. focal length lens?" is an example of this kind of information. For this purpose, a reference source book is helpful. And then there are those who have

**I**F we can thread a projector (at least after two or three tries) and change an exciter lamp (of course it takes a while to find it), we tend to deprecate the need to tell other people, or to be told, how to use audio-visual equipment. This is unfortunate. Perhaps only those who have had considerably more experience with the use of audio-visual devices and have seen results of their misuse can appreciate the need for a manual that will help the prospective user (and present misuser) in the acquisition of the necessary skills and knowledges that result in easy familiarity with such devices and their intelligent use. As members of the psychological community, we ought really to have this degree of competence for the

never made use of projectors or tape recorders but who would like to do so. For them a much more complete training manual (particularly one starting at A) is needed. People who operate film rental libraries are especially convinced that users need to be competently checked out on the use of the standard audio-visual devices.

That Mr. Mannino, who is Supervisory Assistant of the Audio-Visual Aids Library at Pennsylvania State University, has not succeeded in fully meeting all of these needs is certainly not surprising. He has, however, in the short space of 80 pages, offered something of value for everyone using, or about to use, audio-visual equipment, regardless of his level of sophistication. It is, unfortunately, in the book's primary target area (as defined by the author) that it most seriously misses the mark. As a more or less self-contained "course" in the use and maintenance of equipment for the completely uninitiated (particularly for the student who wishes to become, or is told to become, a "student projectionist"), it is in many ways inadequate. It is not distinguished (as, indeed, few texts are) by the careful ordering of accurate information in small units, the progression from the known to the unknown, the provision for guided practice with prompt feedback and reinforcement, nor the singleness of purpose essential for guiding the behavior of the trainee to predictable, high-level, criterion performance. This is too bad, because there is a real need for a source of instruction that would do this, and only this. Standard texts on audio-visual instruction (such as Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*, and Kinder, *Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques*) are much broader in scope and do not lend themselves to the single role of building competence with equipment—although Kinder, for example, does contain a well-organized and clearly presented, though limited, section on equipment.

However, as a reference source book (the area most likely to be of value to us), the ABCs does rather well and would certainly be worth (at \$1.50) having within reach of whatever audio-visual equipment you have around or are likely to get. For this purpose, we

can ignore the many typographical errors, the way in which the format (chapter, paragraph headings, use of tables, etc.) frequently interferes with the learning of the material rather than aiding it, the difficulty sometimes encountered in relating the charts and diagrams to the text, the undefined technical terms, and the somewhat tortuous use of the English language.

An example of the latter:

Likewise special masks are provided for tachistoscopic slides of standard size and each composed of from twelve to eighteen numbers, words, or phrases so that when a flashmeter is attached to the objective lens and the projector converted into tachistoscope, each number, word, or phrase on the slide is projectionable individually at exactly the same spot on the screen, as is required in the tachistoscopic work.

**A**REAS covered which would be of particular interest to part-time or potential audio-visual users include the following:

- (1) facts about 16-mm and 35-mm film,
- (2) the major types of visual aids and their uses,
- (3) how to select equipment,
- (4) threading diagrams for all major 16-mm projectors,
- (5) trouble-shooting and maintenance guides for 16-mm projectors,
- (6) care of film,
- (7) lens and screen charts for various devices,
- (8) the use and care of tape recorders, and
- (9) closed-circuit television.

Additional useful source materials are a list of the manufacturers of equipment with their addresses and a list of free film sources.

The large amount of factual material contained in this volume is, in general, accurate. There are a few lapses, however, that are serious enough to warrant mention. One concerns the use of beaded screens. This type of screen has a high degree of directionality, which means that those sitting at or near the centerline of the screen receive a brilliant picture, while those off axis get a much dimmer picture. The question is, where is the line between adequate and inadequate viewing? Mr. Mannino suggests

that 26° to either side of the center line is the critical point. This is greater than the value normally suggested. At the 26° value, the beaded screen has about 60% reflectivity, which is generally considered to be too low for good viewing. At 15° off center the reflectivity is 110% [that's right: 110], which is adequate. These values indicate that beaded screens are really of limited usefulness, being "too hot" on center and too dim off center. (They also tend to blur images slightly due to the diffusion of light between the beads.)

Matte screens—which are not discussed under the heading *Selection of Screen Surfaces* but are mentioned briefly under the heading *Screen Size and Placement*—have almost no directionality, at a reflectivity value of slightly below 100%. When kept clean they are therefore very satisfactory for general use, particularly where the viewing area is wider than it is long. Pearlescent screens, which are not mentioned, are a good compromise, having a 30° off-axis reflectivity of 100%. Since foreshortening due to perspective becomes objectionable at about 40° to either side of the center line regardless of the type of reflective surface, these screens give adequate viewing over most of the usable area.

Related to the choice of screens is the placement of the screen and the general level of room illumination tolerable when viewing projected images. Here Mr. Mannino makes two rather serious errors in saying that "visual aids cannot be effectively presented in any room unless it is thoroughly darkened," and "place the screen, when possible, in the darkest end or side of the room." Perhaps television has helped us recognize that pitch-black viewing rooms not only increase eye strain, but, at least in the case of educational materials, contribute to over-all fatigue and frequently to sleep. That learning from films is directly related to the wakefulness of the audience is, perhaps, one of the few incontrovertible results of film research. In any case, a low ambient light level is much to be preferred over complete darkness, especially when student participation has been provided for in the film. High wattage projection lamps are, of course, available to help in coun-

teracting the higher room illumination levels. The second statement is wrong partly for the same reasons. It is generally better for the viewer if the projected image is surrounded by a dimmer level of illumination coming from behind the screen than if stray light falls directly on the screen surface. It is therefore frequently advisable to place the screen in the lighter end of the room.

The misleading notion that films should be shown only in fully darkened rooms has important implications for psychologists who may want to do research in which all or part of the stimulus material is provided by means of a projected image of one kind or another. It is quite appropriate to sacrifice some over-all picture quality and brilliance for the advantages gained in having subjects (viewers) make overt responses to films or otherwise to attend alternately to projected and nonprojected material. Some of the work done under Air Force auspices serves as an example of research and development freed from the traditional restraints placed upon film use. As one instance of this, an experimental magazine-loading 16-mm projector was developed for use as an on-the-job aid. Such a projector could serve as part of the work-place environment, providing the necessary visual cues (under the control of the operator) to lead him accurately through the various steps of a procedural task. In laboratory work, many experimenters use films in theoretical studies. There is, for example, John Cook's use of automatically sequenced film strips at North Carolina State University to project

stimulus material under various conditions of prompting and confirmation. In addition, there are many other as yet unexplored possibilities inherent in this medium when it is allowed to escape from the traditional restrictions placed upon it.

**I**N an area where new equipment and modifications of old equipment are constantly appearing on the market, it is, of course, impossible to keep a compendium such as this completely up to date. There are, however, a few omissions which should be noted, particularly because these omitted devices lend themselves so well to the kind of laboratory and field experimentation alluded to above. There is no coverage of the magazine-loading slide projectors with their various degrees of automaticity nor of the ways in which slides and film strips can be synchronized with and automatically paced by inaudible signals from tapes or records. No mention is made of any of the special purpose kinds of audio-visual equipment such as one finds in reading-improvement classes or language classes. Some of these devices, such as the PerceptoScope, are so versatile in what they allow the experimenter to do with projected images that they have been adopted in several instances as standard pieces of psychological laboratory equipment. On the positive side, magnetic striping of motion picture film is covered, and there is an entire chapter on closed-circuit television. The latter account is written (at a level of difficulty considerably beyond that of the rest of the manual) by Philip Lewis, Director of

the Bureau of Instructional Materials of the Chicago Public Schools.

Despite the deficiencies that have been noted, there is a great deal of valuable material between the covers of this widely used manual. The threading charts, the lens and screen-size charts, and the rather good coverage of troubleshooting and general maintenance procedures (particularly for 16-mm projectors) would alone make it a worthwhile addition to the library of anyone interested in using audio-visual equipment. To this reviewer's knowledge, there is no other readily available single source for such information at the present time. However, when viewed as a training manual it must be criticized in the light of what we presently know about producing this kind of instructional material. In this context, for example, the use of different labels to describe the same functional part on different models of projectors conjures up visions of blurred S-R connections. When this sort of thing is done rather consistently, one suspects that learning will not be optimal. As psychologists, we need to stop doing such things ourselves, and we need to try to help others stop doing them. Our art may be in a low state, but it is certainly higher than is reflected in much of the instructional material we produce, and in that which others (more excusably) produce. Can Mr. Mannino go to his local bookstore and buy (or order) a book called "A Training Aid for Writing Training Aids" or a "Manual for Writing Manuals"? I don't think so. The information exists, but it has not been made readily available to all those who could profit by it.



*Wonder, the reiterated why, is as natural to the child as running, and more so than swimming or drop-kicking. Such complete absorption with physical and social activities as American schools exhibit leaves little time or inclination for the serious reading, contemplation, and discourse which are requisite to intellectual vigor. I raise the question, therefore, as to whether the values of American society and of American schools are such as to tempt teachers to become scholars or pupils to become students. If not, then no one need wonder that the "pursuit of excellence" goes on more avidly in the realms of games and congregative activities than in mathematics, science, history, and literature.*

—FRANCIS S. CHASE





# ON THE OTHER HAND



BELLAK'S HORN OF PLENTY

Psychologists beware! You must not speculate nor think in print. Hide your hypotheses; if you dare to print them a reviewer may get you, and, what's more, CP will help him. I am moved to this gloom by Bernard Saper's review of Bellak's *Schizophrenia: A Review of the Syndrome* (CP, Mar. 1960, 5, 100f.).

Profoundly disturbing to me is Saper's comment on Bellak's chapter, *The Schizophrenic Syndrome: A Further Elaboration on the Unified Theory of Schizophrenia*. Saper devotes more than 20 percent of his review to this single chapter, and ends with "So what?", a phrase so close to rudeness when unsupported that I am startled to find it in a serious publication. To what is Saper's "So what?" a retort? Has Bellak advocated counting petals on daisies?

Saper calls the chapter a "partisan statement" (Bellak is a Freudian) of "dubious stature" because it leans "on plausible speculations and the seemingly profound conceptualizations of authorities rather than on replicable empirical proof or crucial research evidence." Are plausible speculations of dubious stature? What makes a conceptualization "seemingly" profound, and is it thereby less worthy?

Bellak has recorded his thoughtful pursuit, in the researches of many fields, for the confirmation of his hypothesis that schizophrenia, while arising from any or several conditions (psychogenic, infectious, toxic, constitutional, etc.), *always* is manifested in a severe disturbance of the ego.

He defines the ego operationally, describing nearly forty of its functions grouped into seven major categories, and relates them to disturbances in behavior—a section rich in material for diagnostician, therapist, theorist, and investigator. He discusses the development, from birth, of each of the major ego-functions, and their disruptions in schizophrenia, from a series of viewpoints (psychoanalytic, organismic, maturational, learning theory). He then warns that there can be no single silver bullet. The implications for research design and for population definition are many and clear.

Saper sees the chapter as unconnected with the rest of the volume. To me, it serves as a trunk from which the other chapters branch and to which one returns for orientation amongst the titanic volume of data: *Statistics*; *Etiology*; *Diagnosis and Symptomatology* (with a lucid and helpful section on differential diagnosis); *Physiological Studies* (tempering thoughts for the proponent of psychogenesis); *Psychological Studies* (here more than elsewhere is corroboration for Bellak's hypothesis); two chapters on psychoanalytic and other psychotherapies; three on insulin, ECT and sundry somatic therapies; *Tranquilizing Drugs* (utilizing double-blind studies as the strict base line for evaluation); *Psychosurgery* (even here the notion of "overactive circuits at a high level of excitation which eventually lead to disorganization" has some fit with ego theory); *Prognosis* (unfortunately sparing in imaginative approach though factual enough); *Complications*; *Childhood Schizophrenia* (I would read this next after Bellak's chapter and then the rest according to interest); *Socio-Cultural Factors*; and *Special Aspects* (military, law, arts).

The bibliography is placed at the back of the book, grouped under chapter headings. Whatever you think of its position, there it is, nearly 4,500 items, the starting-point for upcoming studies in schizophrenia. The indices merit special commendation: an author index, and a cross-referenced subject index.

Now a word about "replicable . . . crucial research evidence." Noble words, yet, without forsaking the scientific tradition, I find it comprehensible that one good thought may be worth many replicable investigations. Are we to become fatheads out of fear of being eggheads?

Finally, should not CP see to it that condemnation (and praise) rest upon at least one sentence of fact unstrewn with sophistry or gobbledegook? Without such support, reviews approach the *argumentum ad hominem* CP abjures.

I should add that I had an editorial hand in Bellak's book, and he and I are friends as well as colleagues. One may assign any weight to this. But most seri-

ously, I have been trying for the last week to convince my six-year-old son that "So what?" is a response unworthy of himself. I trust I shall be successful and wish the same success to CP.

LEONARD SMALL  
New York, N. Y.

ALWAYS RIGOR, AND SOPHISTICATION TOO

We have received a letter from Lee Gurel, who reviewed our *Experiment in Mental Patient Rehabilitation* (CP, Mar. 1960, 5, 71), indicating that his original submission (before the Editor intervened!) contained a reference to the authors' "incisive awareness of the difficult problem of adequate controls." "This is such a crucial but often neglected problem," he adds, "that I thought it worth sending you this brief note." We are inclined to agree with Gurel's review as it stands except that it seems to us to misplace its emphasis.

Gurel writes, "Being clinically unsophisticated, the authors are blameless for not anticipating the difficulties of recruiting ex-hospital patients into Altro's program." It has been our observation in a variety of clinics and social agencies that presumably sophisticated clinicians—more often than researchers—tend to overestimate patient demand and overstate expectations of success. We urge clinicians, as well as researchers, to be more modest.

Gurel's review conveys the message of our monograph clearly, i.e., evaluative research is more than a casual endeavor. The 'Altro' experience is a case history that illustrates this fact well. Both agency and clinical staff were supportive and optimistic, but this was not enough to carry through a satisfactory study and certainly not enough to produce unambiguous findings. Gurel states that "few agencies could accept so uncompromising a commitment to rigorous experimental assessment of their manifestly beneficial services. We agree; 'Altro' was exceptional and deserves praise. Such commitment still is not enough and anything less would have been futile. More than "clinical sophistication," evaluative research needs scientific rigor.

HENRY J. MEYER  
University of Michigan

EDGAR F. BORGATTA  
Cornell University



*The real truth must take account of any statement, and equally of its corresponding object, as parts of related wholes.*

—MAX WERTHEIMER

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